

An Introduction to
ECONOMETRICS

Jaydeb Sarkhel
Santosh Kumar Dutta



*Written according to the new C.B.C.S. syllabus of B.A./B.Sc.
Honours Course in Economics of different universities in India.*

AN INTRODUCTION TO ECONOMETRICS

B.A./B.Sc. Economics (Honours)

Jaydeb Sarkhel

*Retired Professor, Department of Commerce,
Burdwan University;*

Author of 'Microeconomic Theory', 'Macroeconomic Theory', etc.

Dr. Santosh Kumar Dutta

*Associate Professor, Department of Economics,
Bidhannagar College;*

*Joint Author of 'An Insight into Statistics',
'Microeconomics and Statistics' etc.*

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Introductory Econometrics (Sem-IV), FM : 100

(Th : 60 + Tutorial : 30 + Internal assessment : 10 + Attendance : 10)

1. Nature and Scope of Econometrics **2 Lecture hours**
 - 1.1 What is Econometrics ?
 - 1.2 Distinction between Economic model and Econometric model
 - 1.3 Concept of Stochastic relation
 - 1.4 Role of random disturbance in econometric model
2. Classical Linear Regression Model (simple linear regression and multiple linear regression) : Part 1 **18 Lecture hours**
 - 2.1 The classical assumptions
 - 2.2 Concepts of population regression function and sample regression function
 - 2.3 Estimation of model by the method of ordinary least squares
3. Classical linear regression model (simple linear regression and multiple linear regression) : Part 2 **15 Lecture hours**
 - 3.1 Properties of Least Squares Estimators (BLUE)-Gauss-Markov theorem
 - 3.2 Qualitative (dummy) independent variables (only interpretation of the model)
 - 3.3 Forecasting (only for two variable model) : Expost forecast and Exante forecast
4. Statistical inference in Linear regression model **20 Lecture hours**
 - 4.1 Sampling distribution of regression estimates : Standard normal, Chi-square, t , F
 - 4.2 Confidence intervals
 - 4.3 Concepts of Type I and Type II errors
 - 4.4 Testing of hypothesis about β and σ^2 given and with unknown σ^2 (Standard normal and t statistics)
 - 4.5 Testing hypothesis involving several parameters : the F test
 - 4.6 Goodness of fit (in terms of R^2 , adjusted R^2 and F statistic)
5. Violations of Classical Assumptions **10 Lecture hours**
 - 5.1 Multicollinearity-Consequences, Detection and Remedies
 - 5.2 Heteroscedasticity-Consequences, Detection and Remedies
 - 5.3 Autocorrelation-Consequences, Detection and Remedies
6. Specification Analysis **10 Lecture hours**
 - 6.1 Omission of a relevant variable
 - 6.2 Inclusion of an irrelevant variable
 - 6.3 Tests of specification errors
 - 6.4 Testing for linearity and normality assumptions.

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Definition, Scope and Goals of Econometrics

1.1. Definition and Scope of Econometrics

Literally speaking, the word 'econometrics' means "measurement in economics". Econometrics may be considered as the integration of economics, mathematics and statistics for the purpose of providing numerical values for the parameters of economic relationships and verifying economic theories. It is a special type of economic analysis in which the general economic theory formulated in mathematical terms is combined with empirical measurement of economic phenomena. We start from general economic theory, that is, from the relationships of economic variables as suggested by economic theory and express them in mathematical terms. This is called building of an economic model. Next we use statistical methods in order to obtain numerical estimates of the coefficients of the economic relationships. These statistical methods are called *econometric methods*.

Although measurement is an important part of econometrics, the scope of econometrics is much broader, as can be seen from the following quotations :

"Econometrics, the result of a certain outlook on the role of economics, consists of the application of mathematical statistics to economic data to lend empirical support to the models constructed by mathematical economics and to obtain numerical results"¹.

"Econometrics may be defined as the quantitative analysis of actual economic phenomena based on the concurrent development of theory and observation, related by appropriate methods of inference."²

"Econometrics may be defined as the social science in which the tools of economic theory, mathematics and statistical inference are applied to the analysis of economic phenomena."³

"Econometrics is concerned with the empirical determination of economic laws."⁴

"The art of the econometrician consists in finding the set of assumptions that are both sufficiently specific and sufficiently realistic to allow him to take the best possible advantage of the data available to him."⁵

"Econometricians ... are of positive help in trying to dispel the poor public image of economics (quantitative or otherwise) as a subject in which empty boxes are opened

1. Gerhard Tintner, *Methodology of Mathematical Economics and Econometrics*, The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1960, p. 74.

2. P. A. Samuelson, T. C. Koopmans, and J. R. N. Stone, "Report of the Evaluative Committee for Econometrics," *Econometrica*, vol. 22, no. 2, April 1954, pp. 141-146.

3. Arthur S. Goldberger, *Econometric Theory*, John Wiley & Sons, New York, 1964, p. 1.

4. H. Theil, *Principles of Econometrics*, John Wiley & Sons, New York, 1971, p. 1.

5. E. Malinvaud, *Statistical Methods of Econometrics*, Rand McNally, Chicago, 1966, p. 514.

by assuming the existence of an openness to reveal contents which any two economists will interpret in 11 ways."⁶

"The method of econometric research aims, essentially, at a conjunction of economic theory and actual measurements, using the theory and technique of statistical inference as a bridge past."⁷

All these definitions suggest that econometrics is an amalgam of economic theory, mathematical economics, economic statistics and mathematical statistics.

Economic theory postulates an exact relationship between economic variables but actually an economic relationship always contains a random element. Economic theory ignores it but econometrics does not, because the econometric methods can deal with these random components. For example, in the Keynesian macroeconomic theory we find an exact relationship between consumption expenditure (C) and income (Y). Keynesian consumption function is given by $C = a + bY$ where $a > 0$ is called the autonomous part of consumption expenditure and $b = \frac{dC}{dY}$ is called the marginal

propensity to consume (MPC) [$0 < b < 1$ by assumption]. This is an exact relationship because C is completely determined by Y . So, in this model the effects of other variables like price, wealth, income distribution etc., are ignored. But in econometrics the influence of other factors is considered by introducing a random variable in the model and that random variable is generally denoted by ' u ' called error term. So, the consumption function considered in econometrics is $C = a + bY + u$. Now econometric methods estimate the parameters ' a ' and ' b ' and while estimating ' a ' and ' b ' the choice of the econometric method depends on the behaviour of the distribution of the random variable ' u '.

There are three main sources of the error term ' u ' in the functional relation. These are:

- (i) unpredictable elements of randomness in human response,
- (ii) effect of a large number of variables that have been omitted from the functional relation,
- and (iii) measurement error. (For details see Section 2.2.1)

1.2. Relationship between Econometrics and Economic Theory

Economic theory makes statements or hypotheses that are mostly qualitative in nature.

Econometrics presupposes the existence of a body of economic theory. Economic theory should come first because it states the hypothesis about economic behaviour which should be tested with the econometric methods.

For example, we consider the consumption income relationship of the form

$$C = a + bY + u.$$

Economic theory suggests that consumption is a function of income and with the information of economic theory we know that $MPC = \frac{dC}{dY} = b$ lies between 0 and 1 i.e., $0 < b < 1$.

6. Adrian C. Darnell and I. Lynne Evans, *The Limits of Econometrics*, Edward Elgar Publishing, Hants, England, 1990, p. 54.

7. T. Haavelmo, "The Probability Approach in Econometrics", Supplement to *Econometrica*, vol. 12, 1944, Preiner P. 11.

The proposition suggested by economic theory is to be tested now, applying econometric methods. If we find that the theory is consistent with the empirical results we accept the theory but if we find that it is not consistent with the empirical results, then we have either to reject the theory or to modify the theory. If we like to modify the theory then we should not reject the theory, rather we should incorporate some other variables and parameters to make the theory more meaningful (and close to reality).

For example, the simple consumption-income relation, $C = a + bY + u$ can be modified to the form

$C = a + bY + cP + dW + u$ where two new variables P (price level) and W (wealth) have been taken into account in the functional relation. The signs of the parameters ($a, b, c, d > 0$) and the corresponding response coefficients can also be tested empirically.

1.2.1. Difference between Economic Model and Econometric Model

A model is a simplified representation of a real world process. In practice, in any economic model (say consumption function or demand function), we can include all the relevant variables that we think are relevant for our purpose and dump the rest of the variables in a basket called "disturbance". This brings us to the distinction between an economic model and an econometric model.

An economic model is a set of assumptions that approximately describe the behaviour of an economy. An econometric model, on the other hand, consists of the following:

- (i) A set of behavioural equations derived from the economic model.
- (ii) A statement of whether there are errors of observation in the observed variables.
- (iii) A specification of the probability distribution of the "disturbances" (and errors of measurement).

For example, we may consider a simple demand model of economics. Then econometric model will usually consist of:

- (a) The behavioural equation: $q = \alpha + \beta p + u$ where q = quantity demanded, p = price, α and β are two parameters and u = random disturbance term.
- (b) A specification of probability distribution of u , where values of u are independently and normally distributed with mean $E(u) = 0$ and variance $(u) = \sigma_u^2$. With these specifications we can test empirically the law of demand or the hypothesis that $\beta < 0$.

We may also use the estimated demand function for prediction and policy purposes.

1.3. Econometrics and Mathematical Economics

Mathematical economics states economic theory in terms of mathematical symbols. There is no essential difference between mathematical economics and economic theory. Both state the same relationships, but while economic theory uses verbal exposition, mathematical economics employs mathematical symbolism. Both express the various economic relationships in an exact form. Neither economic theory nor mathematical economics allows for random elements which might affect the relationship and make it *stochastic*. Furthermore, they do not provide numerical values for the coefficients of the relationships. Relations in economic theory or in mathematical economics are of *non-stochastic* form. It is in this regard that econometrics differs from mathematical economics.

Although econometrics presupposes the expression of economic relationships in mathematical form, like mathematical economics it does not assume that economic relationships are exact. In the contrary, econometrics assumes that relationships are not exact. Econometric methods are designed to take into account random disturbances which create deviations from the exact behavioural patterns suggested by economic theory and mathematical economics. Furthermore, econometric methods provide numerical values of the coefficients of economic phenomena. Thus by combining mathematical formulations of theory with empirical data, econometrics enables us to pass from the abstract theoretical scheme to numerical results in concrete cases.

1.4 Econometrics and Statistics

Econometrics differs both from mathematical economics and economic statistics. An economic statistician gathers empirical data, records them, tabulates them or charts them and then attempts to describe the pattern in their development over time and perhaps detect some relationship between various economic magnitudes. Thus economic statistics is mainly a descriptive aspect of economic theory. It does not provide explanations of the development of the various variables and does not provide measurement of the parameters of economic relationships.

Economic statistics differs from mathematical or scientific statistics. Mathematical statistics is based upon the theory of probability and deals with the problems of measurement which are developed on the basis of controlled or carefully planned experiments. These statistical methods cannot be applied to economic relationships because such experiments cannot be designed except in a very few cases, e.g. agricultural experiments or industrial experimentation for economic phenomena.

Econometrics uses statistical methods after doing its best to the problems of economic life. These adopted statistical methods are called econometric methods. In particular, econometric methods are so adjusted that they become appropriate for the measurement of economic relationships which are stochastic. In fact, they include random elements. The adjustment consists primarily in specifying the stochastic random elements that are supposed to operate in the real world and adjust the determination of the observed data so that the latter can be interpreted as a random sample to which the methods of statistics can be applied.

1.5 Goals of Econometrics

Econometrics helps us to achieve the following three main goals:

(i) **Analysis.** This means testing of economic theory. There are alternative theories to explain the functioning of the economic system. Econometrics examines the explanatory power of the system.

(ii) **Policy making.** The numerical estimates of the coefficients of the economic relationships help the policy-maker to define the appropriate policies. For example, the numerical estimate of price elasticities of demand for a product will help the policy maker to know how much additional revenue is expected to be obtained if sales tax is imposed on that commodity. Alternatively, numerical estimates of price elasticities of exports and imports will help us to know how far the devaluation as a policy will be effective in solving the balance of payments deficit problem.

(iii) **Forecasting.** The numerical estimates of the coefficients are used in order to forecast the future value of the economic variables. Without forecasting the planner cannot adopt appropriate policies. Of course, these goals are not mutually exclusive.

Successful econometric applications should necessarily include some combination of all those items.

1.6 Division of Econometrics

Econometrics may be divided into two branches: theoretical econometrics and applied econometrics.

Theoretical econometrics includes the development of appropriate methods for the measurement of economic relationships. Econometric techniques are basically statistical techniques which have been adapted to the particular characteristics of economic relationships.

Econometric methods may be classified into two groups: (i) single-equation techniques, which are methods that are applied to one relationship at a time, and (ii) simultaneous equation techniques, which are methods applied to all the relationships of a model simultaneously.

Applied econometrics includes the applications of econometric techniques to specific branches of economic theory. It examines the problems encountered and the attempts of applied research in the fields of demand, supply, production, investment, consumption, and other sectors of economic theory. Applied econometrics involves the application of the tools of theoretical econometrics to the analysis of economic phenomena and forecasting economic behaviour.

1.7. Methodology/Stages of Econometric Research

Applied econometric research is concerned with the measurement of the parameters of economic relationships and with the prediction of the values of economic variables.

The relationships of economic theory which can be measured with one or another econometric techniques are causal, that is, they are relationships in which some variables are postulated as causes of the variation of other variables. In this sense, defining an equation does not require any measurement. For example, the equation $Y = C + I$ is the mathematical expression of the definition of national income in a closed economy with no government activity of economic theory. It does not explain the determination of the level of income or the causes of its variations.

There are four stages in any econometric research:

Stage A: Specification of the model.

It means expressing the relationships between the variables in mathematical form. This stage is also called formulation of the maintained hypothesis. It involves the determination of:

- (i) dependent and the explanatory variables to be included in the model
- (ii) the theoretical expectations about the sign, size of the parameters of the functional
- (iii) the mathematical form of the model

For example, consider a production function of the following type: $Y = f(K, L)$ where K and L are the two factors of production.

K = Capital, L = labour and Y is the level of output.] This function can also be written in the Cobb-Douglas form i.e. $Y = K^\alpha L^\beta$ or $\log Y = \alpha \log K + \beta \log L$. This is the mathematical form of log-linear function. Here some theoretical restrictions must be imposed: $0 < \alpha, \beta < 1$,

$\alpha + \beta > 1$ if there are increasing returns to scale

$\alpha + \beta < 1$ if there are decreasing returns to scale

$\alpha + \beta = 1$ if there are constant returns to scale

g = 1: Sensitivity of pregnant girls exposed to vaginal

β = 1 means we are charged with respect to labour

Stage II: Estimation of the model

the variables of the function

among the explanatory variables

$$p_1 x + p_2 y + p_3 w + \dots$$

It is not clear that the program is a realistic alternative.

the appropriate econometric technique in the estimation of the model and a careful examination of the assumptions of the chosen technique. This is essential for the estimation of the coefficients.

Stage C Evaluation of estimates

After the estimation of the model the econometrician must proceed with the evaluation of the results of the calculations that a will be determined to report to his superiors these results. The evaluation consists of deciding whether the estimates of the parameters are theoretically meaningful and statistically significant.

For this purpose we may use various criteria which may be classified into three main groups:

1. **Economic criteria** These are determined by the principles of economic theory and consist of the sign and the size of the parameters of economic relationships. For example, the Keynesian liquidity preference function may be expressed in the mathematical form:

$$M(\beta_0, \beta_1) = \beta_1 + \alpha$$

where M = demand for money (dependent variable), Y = income, r = rate of interest, u = error term, $\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2$ are the parameters whose values and signs are to be determined on the basis of observed data. On the basis of the existing theory, the signs of the parameters would be $\beta_0 > 0, \beta_1 > 0, \beta_2 < 0$.

(c) **Statistical criteria (First order tests)** These are determined by statistical theory and aim at the evaluation of the statistical reliability of the estimates of the parameters of the model. The most widely used statistical criteria are the correlation coefficient and the standard error of the estimates.

(ii) **Econometric criteria (Second order tests)** These are set by the theory of econometrics and aim at the investigation of whether the assumptions of the econometric method employed are satisfied or not in any particular case. The econometric criteria serve as second order tests (as tests are the statistical tests) in other words they determine the reliability of the statistical criteria, and in particular

the statistical analysis. The programme estimates the hypothesis and establishes whether or not the hypothesis is statistically significant. The next step is to make a forecast.

Stage D – Evaluation of the forecasting power of the estimated model

The model is used to forecast the future values of the dependent variable. The forecast is compared with the actual values of the dependent variable. The difference between the forecast and the actual values is the forecast error. The forecast error is used to evaluate the forecasting power of the model. The forecast error is calculated as the difference between the actual value and the forecast value. The forecast error is then used to calculate the mean square error (MSE). The MSE is a measure of the average squared difference between the actual values and the forecast values. The MSE is used to evaluate the forecasting power of the model. The lower the MSE, the better the model is at forecasting the future values of the dependent variable.

1.8 Desirable Properties of an Econometric Model

The goodness of an econometric model is judged on the basis of the following desirable properties:

- (i) **Theoretical plausibility** – The model should be compatible with the principles of economic theory. It must be based on a set of assumptions which it relates.
- (ii) **Explanatory ability** – The model should be able to explain the behaviour of the actual world. It must be consistent with the observed behaviour of the economic variables whose relationship it formulates.
- (iii) **Accuracy of the estimates of the parameters** – The estimates of the parameters should be accurate in the sense that they should approximate as closely as possible the true parameters of the structural model.
- (iv) **Forecasting ability** – The model should produce satisfactory predictions of future values of the dependent variables.
- (v) **Simplicity** – The model should represent the economic relationships with maximum simplicity.

1.9 Nature and Sources of Data for Economic Analysis

The success of any econometric analysis depends on the availability of the appropriate data. Three types of data are generally available for empirical analysis: *time series data*, *cross-section data* and *panel data*.

Time Series Data

A time series is a set of observations on the values that a variable takes at different times. Such data may be collected at regular time intervals, such as *daily* (e.g. stock prices, weather reports), *weekly* (e.g. money supply figures, *monthly* (e.g. unemployment rate, Consumer Price Index (CPI)), *quarterly* (e.g. GDP), *annual* (e.g. government budget), *quinquennially* (that is every 5 years (e.g. the census of manufacturing)) or *decennially* (that is every 10 years (e.g. the census of population)).

Cross-Section Data

Cross-section data are data on one or more variables collected at the same point of time, such as the census of population conducted by the Government of India every 10 years, the Survey of household consumer expenditure in India conducted by National Sample Survey Organization (NSSO), the opinion polls by the Times of India, NDTV, CNN-IBN and many other organizations. An individual researcher or a group may also collect cross-section data directly from the field of enquiry.

Conventionally the letter Y denotes the dependent variable and $Y_t = Y_1 = Y_2 = \dots = Y_n$ denote the explanatory independent variables. X_k being the k th explanatory variable. The subscript i or j denote i th or j th observation or value. X_{ki} or X_{kj} will denote the i th or j th observation on variable X_k . Here N (or T) will denote the total number of observations or values in the population and n (or t) will denote the total number of observations in a sample. Normally the subscript i will be used for cross-section data (i.e. data collected at one point of time) and the subscript t will be used for time-series data (i.e. data collected on different periods of time). For instance, consider the Keynesian consumption function of the form $C = a + bY$ where C = consumption expenditure, Y = income and a and b are two constants, a = autarkic part of consumption expenditure, b = marginal propensity to consume. According to the existing theory $a > 0$, $0 < b < 1$. If we like to test this relation with the help of time series data, then we will write the regression equation in the form $C_t = a + bY_t + u_t$ (where $t = 1, 2, \dots, t$ say) where u is the random disturbance term. On the other hand, we can write the regression equation in the form $C_i = a + bY_i + u_i$ ($i = 1, 2, \dots, N$ say), when we verify the relation with the help of cross-section data.

Pooled Data

Pooled or combined data are elements of both time series and cross section data. Generally speaking, pooled data is a combination of data (e.g. sales, advertisement, earnings, etc.) of say 20 firms over a given period of time say a year or two. If we combine data of 20 firms in 2 years making 40 observations that is a pooled data, that is, pooling 20 firms' data in 2 years together. So, it is a combination of cross-section data and time series data.

Panel, Longitudinal, or Micropanel Data

This is a special type of pooled data in which the same cross-sectional unit (say a family or a firm) is surveyed over time.

For example, the Nigerian population commission surveys each house every 10 years to determine the changes that may have occurred within these units. By surveying or interviewing the same households or firms to find out their population or financial conditions periodically (10 years interval), panel data can help to provide useful information on the changes that may have occurred in these households. It is more detailed than just the pooled data in a short period of time.

Thus, there is a basic difference between pooled data and panel data. It should be noted that pooled time-series, cross-section data are data with relatively few cross-sections (say few firms under study), where variables are held in cross-section specific individual series (e.g. sales, advertisement earnings, etc.), while panel data correspond to data with large number of cross-sections, with variables held in single series in stacked form.

The Sources of Data

The data used in empirical analysis may be collected by a government agency (e.g. the Central Statistical Organization), an international agency (e.g. the International Monetary Fund (IMF) or the World Bank), a private organization (e.g. the Centre for Monitoring Indian Economy) or an individual. There exist a lot of agencies collecting data for one purpose or another. Now a days the Internet has revolutionized data

gathering. Most of the data can be downloaded from different websites either free of cost or with minimum cost.

The Accuracy of Data

Although plenty of data are available for economic research, the quality of data is often not that good.

There are several reasons for that:

- (i) Most of the social science data are non-experimental in nature, therefore there is the possibility of observational errors.
- (ii) Even in experimentally collected data, errors of measurement arise from approximations and rounding off.
- (iii) In questionnaire type of surveys, the problem of non-response may lead to bias in results.
- (iv) The sampling methods used in obtaining data may vary so widely that it is often difficult to compare the results obtained from the various samples.
- (v) Economic data are generally available at a highly aggregate level. Such highly aggregated data may not be helpful for individualistic study.

Because of all of these and many other problems, the researchers should always keep in mind that the results of research are only as good as the quality of the data. Therefore, in given situations researchers find that the results of the research are "unsatisfactory" the cause may not be that they used the wrong model but due to the poor quality of data.

1.10. A Note on the Measurement Scales of Variables

The variables that we generally use can be measured in four types of scales: ratio scale, interval scale, ordinal scale and nominal scale. We can briefly describe them as follows:

Ratio Scale For a variable X , taking two values say X_1 and X_2 , the ratio X_2/X_1 and the distance $(X_2 - X_1)$ are meaningful quantities. Also, there is a natural ordering (ascending or descending) of the values along the scale (say $X_2 \geq X_1$ or $X_2 < X_1$). Most economic variables belong to this category. Personal income measured in rupees is a ratio variable, someone earning ₹ 50,000 is making twice as much as another person earning ₹ 25,000.

Interval scale : The interval scale satisfies the last two properties stated in ratio scale but not the first.

For example, the distance between two time periods say (2018-2001) is meaningful but not the ratio of two time periods $\left\{ \frac{2018}{2001} \right\}$.

Ordinal Scale A variable belongs to this category only if it satisfies the third property of the ratio scale (i.e. natural ordering). Examples are grading systems (A, B, C, grades) or income class (upper, middle, lower). For these variables the ordering exists. But the distances between the categories cannot be quantified.

Nominal Scale Variables in this category have more of the features of the ratio scale variables. Variables such as gender (male, female) and marital status (married, unmarried, divorced, separated) simply denote categories.

EXERCISE

1. What is Econometrics and what are its components? Describe the full form of each component & give examples in support of your answer.
2. Name and describe three relationships studied in economic theory which can be estimated as sub-component of Econometrics. What are the parameters of these relationships?
3. How would you define Econometrics? How does it differ from Mathematical Economics and Statistics? Describe the main steps involved in any econometric research by taking an example from economic theory.
4. Considering the following relations, how would you explain that economic theory postulates exact relationships between economic variables. How can these be estimated into econometric relations?
 - a. Demand function: $D = \alpha + \beta P + \gamma I$ where D = quantity demanded, P = price and I = income
 - b. Supply function: $S = \alpha + \beta P$ where S = quantity supplied, P = price
 - c. Consumption function: $C = \alpha + \beta Y_d$ where C = consumption expenditure and Y_d = disposable income
 - d. Cost function: $C = \alpha + \beta L$ where C = total cost and L = total labour
 - e. Production function: $Q = \alpha L^\beta K^{1-\beta}$ where Q = level of output, L = labour input, K = capital input, α = constant technical parameter, α, β are the two elasticity coefficients
 - a. What is the economic meaning of the coefficients involved in all the above equations?
 - b. What would you expect about the sign and size of the coefficients in the case of the above relationships?
5. Enumerate the relation between econometrics and economic theory.
6. What is econometrics? What are the different goals of econometrics?
7. Distinguish between theoretical econometrics and applied econometrics.
8. Explain briefly the different stages of any econometric research.
9. What is an econometric model? Illustrate any one of such models.
10. What are the desirable properties of an econometric model?
11. What are the different types of data available for empirical analysis?
12. Distinguish between time series data and cross-section data.
13. What are pooled data? What are panel data? Distinguish between pooled data and panel data.
14. What are the different sources of data used in empirical analysis?
15. What do you mean by accuracy of data? What are the different reasons for distortion of accuracy of data collected and published by different organizations?
16. Give a brief outline on measurement scales of variables.

2

The Simple Linear Regression Model

2.1. Introduction

Most of economics is concerned with relations among variables. These relations when phrased in mathematical terms can predict the effect of one variable on another. For example, assuming that income, prices of other commodities and all other determinants of demand are constants, we can express the quantity demanded (q) of any commodity as a function of the price (p) of that commodity only. This may be put in the form $q = f(p)$. Similarly we are familiar with other functions with different assumptions such as consumption function $C = f(Y)$, supply function $S = f(p)$, cost function $C = f(q)$, production function $Q = f(x_1, x_2)$ where x_1 and x_2 are amounts of different inputs, etc.

These functional relationships define the dependence of the dependent variable upon the independent variable (x) in the specific form. The functional relation may be linear, quadratic, logarithmic, exponential or hyperbolic.

A relation between two variables X and Y expressed as $Y = f(X)$ is said to be deterministic or non-stochastic (non-random) if for each value of the independent variable (X) there is one and only one corresponding value of the dependent variable (Y). On the other hand, a relation between X and Y is said to be stochastic if for a particular value of X there is a whole probability distribution of values of Y . In such a case for any given value of X , the dependent variable Y assumes some specific value only with some probability.

For example, a linear demand function (in deterministic form) can be written as $q = f(p) = \alpha - \beta p$ ($\alpha > 0$, $\beta < 0$) and in particular $q = 100 - 5p$. When $p = 20$, $q = 50$, when $p = 15$, $q = 25$ etc.

But such an exact and deterministic relation between p and q is never true in the real world.

The deterministic behaviour of the above relationship breaks down when the *ceteris paribus* (other things remaining the same) condition is relaxed.

We therefore rewrite the demand equation as $q = \alpha - \beta p + u$ or in particular $q = 100 - 5p + u$ where u is commonly known as *random disturbance* since it disturbs an otherwise deterministic relation.

2.1.1. Concepts of Population Regression Function and Sample Regression Function

Sampling denotes the selection of a part of the aggregate statistical material with a view to obtaining information about the whole. This aggregate or totality of statistical information on a particular character of all the members covered by an investigation is called population or universe. When the population size is very large, it may not be

possible to take a complete enumeration of the population. Then we select a small part of the population with sample and examining its characteristics we can make an inference about the whole population. The basic idea is of sampling + to make inference about the population by examining a small part of it.

In regression we may be interested to find out the relation between two or more variables simultaneously. In the case of simple (linear) regression model we assume only one explanatory variable but in the case of multiple regression model we assume more than one explanatory variables. The first case is known as the bivariate analysis and the second case is known as the multivariate analysis. In other words we will employ rate on bivariate analysis studies the relation between two variables X and Y on Y where Y dependent variable & independent explanatory variable.

We know that regression analysis is largely concerned with estimating and/or predicting the population parameter say mean value of the dependent variable (Y) on the basis of the known or fixed values of the explanatory variables. To understand the fact we consider a total population of 60 families in a hypothetical community and their monthly income (X) and monthly consumption expenditure (Y) both in rupees. These 60 families are divided into 10 income groups and the monthly expenditure of each family in the various groups are shown in the following table (Table 2.1).

Table 2.1 Joint distribution of monthly income (X in ₹) and monthly consumption expenditure (Y in ₹) of 60 families in a hypothetical community

$Y \rightarrow$ $X \downarrow$	4000	6000	7500	8000	9000	10000	12000	14000	16000	18000	20000	22000	24000	26000
5500	6500	7500	8000	9000	10200	11000	12000	13500	14500	15500	16500	17500	18500	19500
6000	7000	8400	9300	10700	11500	12600	13600	14700	15500	16500	17500	18500	19500	20500
6500	7400	9000	9500	11000	12000	13000	14000	15000	16000	17000	18000	19000	20000	21000
7000	8000	9400	10000	11500	12500	13500	14500	15500	16500	17500	18500	19500	20500	21500
7500	8500	9800	10800	12000	13000	14000	15000	16000	17000	18000	19000	20000	21000	22000
	8800		11200	12500	14000									
			11500											
Total	12500	46200	44500	70700	67800	75000	68500	104700	90600	21000				
Conditional means of Y E $Y X$	6500	7700	8900	10100	11300	12500	13700	14900	16100	17300				

Here we have 10 fixed values of X and the corresponding Y values against each of the X values and hence we have 10 subpopulations of Y . From Table 2, we see that there is considerable variation in monthly consumption expenditure in each income group but the general picture is that despite the variability of monthly consumption expenditure within each income bracket, on an average monthly consumption expenditure increases as income increases. To understand it clearly we have given the mean, or average monthly consumption expenditure corresponding to each of the 10 levels of income. Thus, corresponding to the monthly income level of ₹4000, the mean consumption expenditure is ₹6500 and so on. In total we have 10 mean values for 10 sub-populations of Y and these mean values are called conditional expected values as they depend upon the given values of the (conditioning) variable X .

Symbolically we denote them as $E(Y|X)$ which simply means the expected value of Y given the value of X . It should be noted that these expected values are called conditional expected values. In order to calculate conditional expected values $E(Y|X)$ we have to construct conditional probability distribution of $Y|X$, X shown in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2 Conditional Probabilities $P(Y|X_i)$ for the data of Table 2.1

$X \backslash Y$	8000	12000	13000	14000	14200	18000	20000	22000	24000	26000
Conditional probability $P(Y X)$	$\frac{1}{5}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{5}$	$\frac{1}{7}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{8}$	$\frac{1}{5}$	$\frac{1}{7}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{7}$
	$\frac{1}{5}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{5}$	$\frac{1}{7}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{5}$	$\frac{1}{7}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{7}$
	$\frac{1}{5}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{5}$	$\frac{1}{7}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{5}$	$\frac{1}{7}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{7}$
	$\frac{1}{5}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{5}$	$\frac{1}{7}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{5}$	$\frac{1}{7}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{7}$
	$\frac{1}{5}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{5}$	$\frac{1}{7}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{5}$	$\frac{1}{7}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{7}$
	—	$\frac{1}{6}$	—	$\frac{1}{7}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	—	$\frac{1}{7}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{7}$
			—	$\frac{1}{7}$				$\frac{1}{7}$		$\frac{1}{7}$
Conditional means of Y	6500	7700	8900	10100	11300	12500	13700	14900	16100	17300

For the income group of ₹8000 the expected monthly expenditure is obtained by

$$₹5500 \times \frac{1}{5} + ₹6000 \times \frac{1}{5} + ₹6500 \times \frac{1}{5} + ₹7000 \times \frac{1}{5} + ₹7500 \times \frac{1}{5} = ₹6500$$

The expected monthly expenditures for other income groups are also obtained in this way.

It is important to distinguish these conditional expected values from the unconditional expected value of monthly consumption expenditure, $E(Y)$. If we add the monthly consumption expenditures for all the 60 families in the population and divide this number by 60, we get the value ₹12120 ($₹727200/60$) which is the unconditional mean or expected value of Y , $E(Y)$.

Thus the expected monthly consumption expenditure of a family would be ₹12120 (the unconditional mean). But if we like to know the expected value of monthly consumption expenditure of a family whose monthly income is say ₹12000, then we get a value of ₹8900 (the conditional mean).

Graphically, if we join these conditional mean values, we obtain the population regression line (PRL) or population regression curve or simply it is the regression of Y on X .

The population regression curve is simply the locus of the conditional means of the dependent variable for the fixed values of the explanatory variable(s). More specifically,

It is the curve showing any one mean value of population of Y corresponding to a given value of the regressor X . This is shown in Figure 2.1.

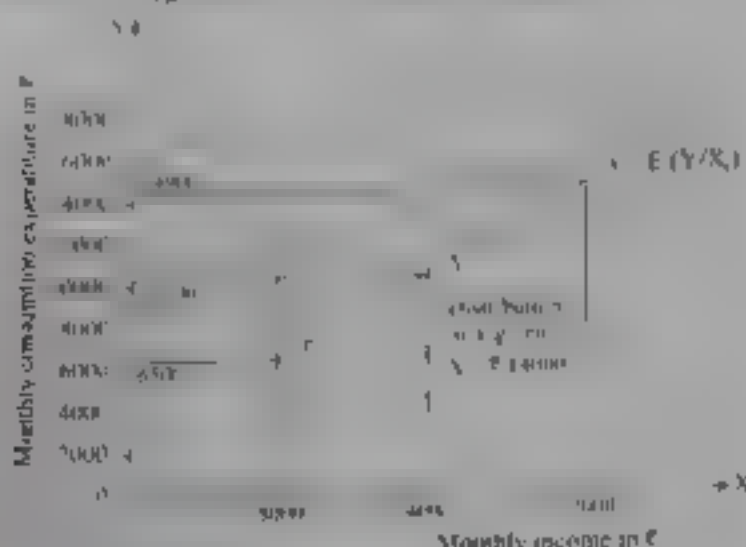


Fig. 2.1. Population regression line (data of Table 2.1)

This figure shows that for each X (i.e. income level) there is a population of Y values (monthly consumption expenditure) that are spread around the conditional mean of those Y values. For simplicity we have assumed that these Y values are distributed symmetrically around their respective (conditional) mean values and the regression line (or curve) passes through these (conditional) mean values.

2.1.2. Population Regression Function (PRF)

From the above explanation and Figure 2.1 it is clear that each conditional mean $E(Y/X)$ is a function of X , where X is a given value of X . Symbolically $E(Y/X) = f(X)$ where $f(X)$ denotes some function of the explanatory variable X . So a linear function in X , this function is also known as the conditional expectation function (CEF) or Population regression function (PRF) or population regression (PR). Data exhibits that the expected value of the distribution of Y given X is functionally related to X . In simple terms, it tells how the mean or average response of Y varies with X . However, the functional form of the PRF is an empirical question. For example, to verify the consumption-income relation we generally assume a linear relation. We may assume that the PRF $E(Y/X)$ is a linear function of X , say of the type

$E(Y/X) = \alpha + \beta X$ where α and β are unknown but fixed parameters known as the regression coefficients. α and β are also known as intercept and slope coefficients respectively. In regression analysis our interest is in estimating the PRF and the unknown values of α and β on the basis of observations on Y and X .

From our earlier example stated in Table 2.1 we see that, given the income level of X_i (say), an individual family's consumption expenditure is clustered around the average consumption of all families at X_i , i.e. around its conditional expectation. Therefore, we can express the deviation of an individual Y_i around its expected value as follows

$$u_i = Y_i - E(Y/X_i) \text{ or } Y_i = E(Y/X_i) + u_i \text{ or } Y_i = \alpha + \beta X_i + u_i$$

where the deviation u_i is an unobservable random variable taking positive or negative values. Technically, u_i is known as the Stochastic disturbance term or Stochastic error term.

It should be noted that an estimator, also known as a *sample statistic*, is not just a rule or formula or method that tells us how to estimate the population parameter, but the information provided by the sample at hand. A particular numerical value obtained by the estimator is known as an *estimate*. It should be noted that an estimator is random but an estimate is not random.

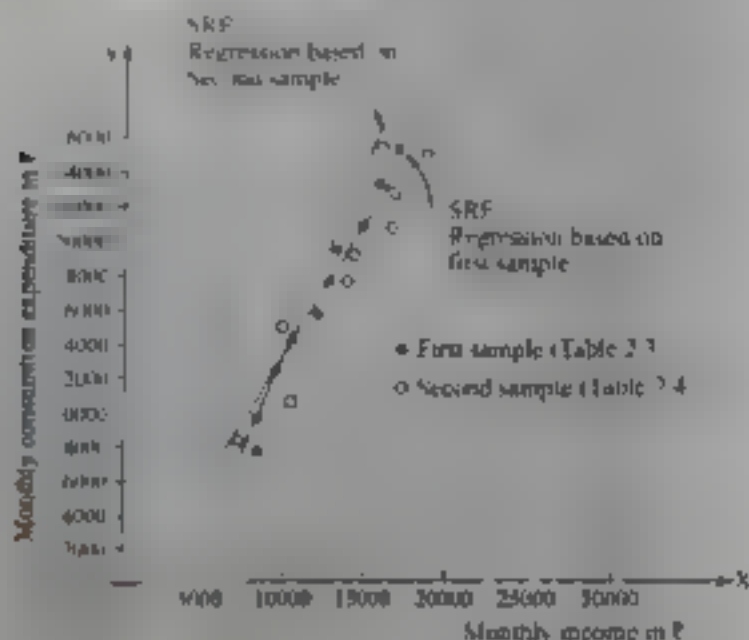


Fig. 2.2. Regression lines based on two different samples

If we take the population regression function $E(Y|X) = \alpha + \beta X$, and we can express the sample regression equation $\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}X_i$ in its stochastic form as follows:

$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}X_i + u_i$, where u_i denotes the (sample) residual term. Conceptually, u_i is analogous to u_i and can be regarded as an estimate of u_i . It is introduced in the PRF for the same reasons as u_i was introduced in the PRF.

Now our primary objective in regression analysis is to estimate the PRF $E(Y|X) = \alpha + \beta X + u$ on the basis of the SRF $\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}X_i + u_i$. It should be noted that the estimate of the PRF based on the SRF is at best an approximate one (as sampling fluctuations exist). We have to develop procedures that tell us how to construct the SRF in such a way that the PRF is as faithfully as possible.

2.2. The Simple Linear Regression Model

Relationships suggested by economic theory are usually specified as exact or deterministic relationships between variables, while on the other hand much stress is placed on the need for testing these economic theories. This implies a belief in the existence of stochastic function. The knowledge of econometrics tries to test these theoretical propositions in terms of stochastic variables. The simplest form of functional relation between two variables X and Y is called a simple linear regression model and is given by $Y_i = \alpha + \beta X_i + u_i$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ where Y_i = dependent variable, X_i = explanatory variable (independent variable), u_i = stochastic disturbance term, α and β are two regression parameters whose values are to be determined on the basis of the

given data on X and Y . The subscript i refers to the i th observation, n = sample size or number of data points.

The stochastic nature of the regression model implies that for every value of X there is a whole probability distribution of values of Y . In other words, the value of Y can never be predicted exactly. This uncertainty concerning the value of Y arises because of the presence of the stochastic term u which imparts randomness to Y .

2.2.1 Role of Random disturbance term in Econometric Model

We may ask why should we add an error term or random disturbance term u to an econometric model?

The disturbance term u is a surrogate for all those variables that are omitted from the model but that cannot very affect Y . We may give the following reasons for the insertion of the disturbance term in an econometric model:

(i) **Omission of variables from the function** Suppose in the model $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X$ if Y is the variable Y denotes the consumption expenditure and X denotes disposable income. But in reality Y is not the only variable influencing Y . The term u denotes the family spending habits and so on affect the variable Y . The error u is a substitute for the effects of all these variables, some of which may not even be quantifiable and some of which may not even be identifiable. Therefore u may be used as a substitute for all the excluded or omitted variables from the model.

(ii) **Unpredictable element of randomness in human responses** For instance if Y = consumption expenditure of a household and X = disposable income of the household, there is an unpredictable element of randomness in each household's consumption. The household does not behave like a machine. In one month the people in the household are on a spending spree. In other month they are tightfisted.

(iii) **Imperfect specification of the mathematical form of the model** We may have specified a possibly nonlinear relationship between X and Y or we may have omitted out of the model some equations.

It is because the economic phenomena are much more complex than a single equation may reveal. For example, price determines and is determined by the quantity supplied (or quantity demanded) in the market. Under such circumstances, we attempt to study the phenomena with a single equation model. We are bound to commit an error. Thus the disturbance term represents such an error which may be due to imperfect specification of the form of the model, that is, of the number of equations.

(iv) **Core variables versus peripheral variables** In consumption-income relation, for instance, we may observe that besides income X_1 , the number of children per family X_2 , sex X_3 , religion X_4 , education X_5 , and geographical region X_6 , etc. also can affect consumption expenditure. But it is quite possible that the joint influence of all or some of these variables may be so small that as a practical matter it does not pay to introduce them into the model explicitly. However, their combined effect can be treated as a random variable u .

(v) **Principle of Parsimony** Generally we would like to keep our regression model as simple as possible. If we can explain the behaviour of Y substantially with two or three explanatory variables and if our theory is not strong enough to suggest what other variables might be included, why introduce more variables? In such cases u

Expenditure on health care is a function of income and age. The regression model is written as follows:

Due to aggregation, we can write the population regression model as

where μ is the mean of the error term. We assume that the error term u_i is a random variable with mean zero and constant variance σ^2 .

Due to errors in measurement (Errors in variables), the regression model can be written as follows: $Y_i = \alpha + \beta X_i + u_i$, where u_i is the error term. The error term u_i is a random variable with mean zero and constant variance σ^2 . The error term u_i is a random variable with mean zero and constant variance σ^2 .

Due to errors in measurement (Errors in variables), the regression model can be written as follows: $Y_i = \alpha + \beta X_i + u_i$, where u_i is the error term. The error term u_i is a random variable with mean zero and constant variance σ^2 . The error term u_i is a random variable with mean zero and constant variance σ^2 .

If all these random, the stochastic disturbance u assume an extremely important role in regression analysis.

2.5 Classical Linear Regression Model and Its Assumptions

Let us consider an observed relation between two variables X and Y which is given by $Y_i = \alpha + \beta X_i + u_i$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ where Y is the dependent variable, X is the independent variable, u is the disturbance term, the subscript i denotes the i th observation. α and β are the two parameters whose values are to be estimated on the basis of the observed data on X and Y .

Now the model is called a Classical Linear Regression Model (CLRM) if the model satisfies the following properties/assumptions:

Assumption 1 u is a random variable which follows normal distribution.

Assumption 2 $E(u) = 0$ for each $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$. This means that the probability distribution of the disturbance term is such that its mean is zero.

Now $E(u) = 0$ implies $E(Y) = \alpha + \beta X$. This can be shown as follows: Since $Y_i = \alpha + \beta X_i + u_i$, Now $E(Y_i) = E(\alpha + \beta X_i + u_i) = E(\alpha) + \beta E(X_i) + E(u_i) = \alpha + \beta X_i$, as $E(u) = 0$ and $E(X) = X$.

But $\alpha + \beta X$ is the true value of Y . This means that expectation of observed value of the dependent variable is its true value. In other words, the probability distribution of Y is centred around the true relationship.

Assumption 3 Variance of each u_i is a constant and is independent of X_i . σ^2 is denoted by σ_u^2 or simply σ^2 .

i.e. $\text{Var}(u_i) = \sigma_u^2$ or σ^2 .

or $E(u_i^2) = E(u_i)^2 + \sigma_u^2 = \sigma_u^2$ where $E(u) = 0$.

Assumptions 2 and 3 imply that the random variables u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n are identically distributed with the same mean (zero) and same variance (σ_u^2).

i.e. $u_i \sim \text{ID}(0, \sigma_u^2)$ for each $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$.

Assumption 4 The different error terms are independent (distributed $e_i \sim I(\mu_e, \sigma_e^2)$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$)

Note $\text{Cov}(u_i, u_j) = 0$ for $i \neq j$

and $\text{Var}(u_i) = \sigma_u^2$ (i.e.) where $\sigma_u^2 = \sigma_e^2$

Assumption 5 The independent variable X is non-stochastic and the random variable Y is for a known value of X and a mean μ is associated with a corresponding set of explanatory variables.

i.e. $I(X, \mu) = I(X, \mu) = 1$ for all i

The regression equation $Y = \alpha + \beta X$ is along with the n observations except any represented by classical least Regression Model. The two assumptions are important roles to play in the sampling distributions of parameters α and β .

The effect of first three assumptions on the probability distribution of dependent variable Y can now be rationalised.

Let in the equation $Y = \alpha + \beta X + u$, Y is a linear function of X and $u \sim N(0, \sigma_u^2)$ normally distributed. It follows that Y is also normally distributed.

$$(i) Y_i = \alpha + \beta X_i + u_i$$

$$E(Y_i) = E(\alpha + \beta X_i + u_i)$$

$$E(Y_i) = \alpha + \beta X_i$$

$$u_i = 0$$

This means that the mean of Y_i is $\alpha + \beta X_i$

$$(ii) \text{Var}(Y_i) = E(Y_i - \bar{Y})^2 = E(Y_i - E(Y_i))^2 = E(\alpha + \beta X_i + u_i - \alpha - \beta X_i)^2 = E(u_i^2)$$

$$= E(u_i^2) = \sigma_u^2 \quad [\because E(u_i)^2 = \sigma_u^2]$$

Therefore we say that variance of Y_i is σ_u^2

Thus with the first three assumptions of u_i , we can indirectly say that Y_i is normally distributed with mean $(\alpha + \beta X_i)$ and variance σ_u^2

Symbolically, $Y_i \sim N(\alpha + \beta X_i, \sigma_u^2)$ when $u_i \sim N(0, \sigma_u^2)$. This is illustrated in Fig. 2.3

Let $Y = \alpha + \beta X$ represent the population regression line. This regression line is unknown as we do not know the exact values of α and β . We have to estimate the values α and β on the basis of sample data.

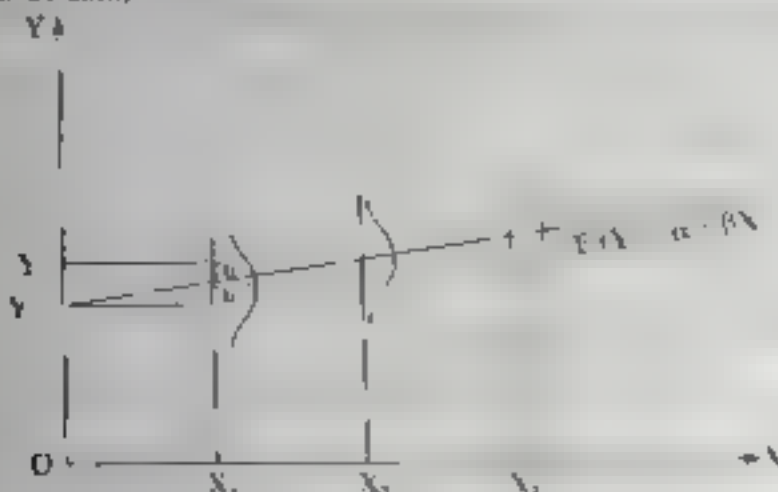


Fig. 2.3.

Since $Y_i = \alpha + \beta X_i + u_i$, u_i is the regression equation.

The sample counterpart of u_i is the estimated error term \hat{u}_i is a so-called the residual defined as $\hat{u}_i = Y_i - \hat{\alpha} - \beta X_i$.

The two equations for estimating α and β are obtained by replacing population assumptions by their sample counterparts.

Population Assumption	Sample Counterpart
$E(u_i) = 0$	$\sum_{i=1}^n u_i = 0$ (or $\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{u}_i = 0$)
$E(X_i u_i) = 0$	$\sum_{i=1}^n X_i u_i = 0$ (or $\sum_{i=1}^n X_i \hat{u}_i = 0$)

Thus we get the two equations

$$\sum_{i=1}^n u_i = 0 \text{ or } \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \alpha - \beta X_i) = 0$$

and $\sum_{i=1}^n X_i \hat{u}_i = 0$ or $\sum_{i=1}^n X_i (Y_i - \alpha - \beta X_i) = 0$

These equations can be written as

$$\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i = n\alpha + \beta \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n X_i Y_i = \alpha \sum_{i=1}^n X_i + \beta \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2 \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

These two equations are called 'normal equations'. Solving these two equations we can get α and β .

Example 2.1. Consider the data on advertising expenditures (X) and sales revenue (Y) for an athletic sports wear store for 5 months.

The observations are as follows

Month	Sales Revenue (Y) (in 000 ₹)	Advertising Expenditure (X) (in 10 ₹)
1	3	1
2	4	2
3	2	3
4	6	4
5	8	5

Solution Let $Y_i = \alpha + \beta X_i + u_i$ be the regression equation. The two normal equations for estimating the regression coefficients are

$$\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i = n\alpha + \beta \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n X_i Y_i = \alpha \sum_{i=1}^n X_i + \beta \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2 \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

Calculations for α and β (estimators of β_0 and β_1)

Month	x	y	x^2	y^2	xy
1	1	2	1	4	2
2	2	4	4	16	8
3	3	5	9	25	15
4	4	6	16	36	24
5	5	8	25	64	40
Total	$\sum x = 15$	$\sum y = 25$	$\sum x^2 = 55$	$\sum y^2 = 145$	$\sum xy = 89$

Use $\bar{y} = 5$ and $\bar{x} = 3$ in the two normal equations

$$\text{We get: } 5\alpha + 15\beta = 89 \quad (1)$$

$$9\alpha + 45\beta = 25 \quad (2)$$

Solving (1) and (2) by Cramer's rule we get

$$\alpha = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} 89 & 15 \\ 25 & 45 \end{vmatrix}}{\begin{vmatrix} 5 & 15 \\ 9 & 45 \end{vmatrix}} = \frac{89 \times 45 - 15 \times 25}{5 \times 45 - 15 \times 9} = \frac{4005 - 375}{225 - 135} = \frac{3630}{90} = 40.33$$

$$\text{and } \beta = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} 5 & 89 \\ 9 & 25 \end{vmatrix}}{\begin{vmatrix} 5 & 15 \\ 9 & 45 \end{vmatrix}} = \frac{5 \times 25 - 89 \times 9}{5 \times 45 - 15 \times 9} = \frac{125 - 801}{225 - 135} = \frac{-676}{90} = -7.51$$

Thus the estimated regression equation is

$$\hat{y} = 40.33 + (-7.51)x$$

The intercept $\hat{\alpha}$ gives the value of \hat{y} when $x = 0$ (i.e. says that advertising expenditure on radio sales revenue will be ₹ 40.33). The slope coefficient $\hat{\beta}$ is -7.51 which says that for an additional expenditure of ₹ 1 on advertising, the sales revenue will decrease by ₹ 7.51 on an average. We have also shown the estimated $\hat{\alpha}$ and $\hat{\beta}$ of the model, given by

$$\hat{\alpha} = 40.33, \hat{\beta} = -7.51 \text{ shown in the last column of the above table}$$

2.4. The Method of Ordinary Least Squares (OLS)

Let $y = \alpha + \beta x + u$ be a two-variable linear regression model where y is the dependent variable and x is the independent variable and u is the disturbance term. The disturbance term u satisfies the following properties. Then this model will be called a classical linear regression model (CLRM).

$$E(u_i) = 0 \text{ for each } i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n$$

$$E(u_i u_j) = 0 \text{ for each } i \neq j$$

$$E(u_i^2) = \sigma_u^2 \text{ for each } i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n$$

$$E(u_i x_j) = 0 \text{ for all } i \neq j$$

$$E(u_i^2) = \sigma_u^2 \text{ for all } i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n$$

$$E(u_i x_j) = 0 \text{ for all } i \neq j$$

The two parameters α and β of the regression equation can be obtained by the method of ordinary least squares (OLS). Let $\hat{\alpha}$ and $\hat{\beta}$ be the estimated values of

and μ . The estimated relation becomes $\hat{Y} = \alpha + \beta X$ and $e_i = Y_i - \hat{Y}_i$ is the error term which shows the difference between the observed and estimated value.

The method of least squares consists in finding out those values of α and β for which $\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2$ is minimum. This means that we have to minimise $\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{Y}_i)^2$ through the choice of α and β . The necessary conditions of minimization require

$$\frac{\partial \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2}{\partial \alpha} = 2 \sum_{i=1}^n (-1) = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad \beta \sum_{i=1}^n X_i = 0 \quad (1)$$

$$\text{and} \quad \frac{\partial \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2}{\partial \beta} = 2 \sum_{i=1}^n X_i (-1) = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad \beta \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2 = 0 \quad (2)$$

Simplifying equations (1) and (2) we get two normal equations

$$\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i = n\alpha + \beta \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \quad (3)$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n X_i Y_i = \alpha \sum_{i=1}^n X_i + \beta \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2 \quad (4)$$

Now solving equations (3) and (4) by Cramer's rule we have

$$\beta = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} n & \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \\ \sum_{i=1}^n X_i Y_i & \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2 \end{vmatrix}}{\begin{vmatrix} n & \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \\ \sum_{i=1}^n X_i & \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2 \end{vmatrix}}} = \frac{n \sum_{i=1}^n X_i Y_i - \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i}{n \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2 - \left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i \right)^2} \quad \left(\frac{\text{cov}(X, Y)}{\text{var}(X)} \right)$$

$$\text{or} \quad \beta = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \quad \text{assuming } X_i = x_i - \bar{x} \text{ and } Y_i = y_i - \bar{y}$$

Again from equation (3) we get

$$\sum_{i=1}^n y_i = n\alpha + \beta \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$$

$$\therefore \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n y_i}{n} = \alpha + \beta \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i}{n} \quad \text{or } \bar{y} = \alpha + \beta \bar{x} \quad \therefore \alpha = \bar{y} - \beta \bar{x}$$

2.6.1 Reverse Regression

By applying OLS method we have estimated the linear regression equation (1) $\hat{y} = \alpha + \beta x$ where x satisfies all the properties of CLRM. The estimated regression equation becomes, $\hat{y} = \alpha + \beta x$ where α and β are the OLS estimators of α and β .

$$\text{Here } \beta = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2} = \frac{Cov(x, y)}{Var(x)} = \frac{r_{xy} \sigma_y}{\sigma_x} = r_{xy} \frac{\sigma_y}{\sigma_x}$$

If we put $x = Y$ and $y = X$ then we have

$$\hat{\beta} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{\alpha} = \bar{Y} - \hat{\beta} \bar{X}$$

Here $\hat{\beta}$ is the estimated regression coefficient of Y on X . In this case the regression equation so defined is called the direct regression equation (of Y on X) where Y is the dependent variable and X is the independent variable. Sometimes we have to consider the regression equation of X on Y as well. This is called **reverse regression**.

The reverse regression is used in many cases. For instance reverse regression has been advocated in the analysis of sex (or race) discrimination in salaries.

Suppose Y = salary and X = qualification and we are interested in determining if there is sex discrimination in salaries. We can ask

1. Whether men and women with the same qualifications (value of X) are getting the same salaries (value of Y). This question is answered by the direct regression, i.e. regression of Y on X . Alternatively, we can ask
2. Whether men and women with same salaries (value of Y) have the same qualifications (value of X).

This question is answered by the reverse regression, i.e. regression equation of X on Y .

For the reverse regression, the regression equation can be written as $X = \alpha' + \beta' Y + v_i$ where v_i are the errors satisfying all the properties of CLRM. Here X is the dependent variable and Y is the independent variable.

The error sum of squares becomes $\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \alpha - \beta x_i)^2$ which in the residual form showing the difference between the observed and predicted values. The method of least squares consists in finding the values of α and β for which $\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2$ is minimum. This means that we have to minimise

$$S = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \alpha - \beta x_i)^2 \quad \text{through the choice of } \alpha \text{ and } \beta. \quad \text{The}$$

necessary conditions of minimisation require

$$\frac{\partial \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2}{\partial \alpha} = 2 \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \alpha - \beta x_i) = 0$$

$$\text{and} \quad \frac{\partial \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2}{\partial \beta} = 2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i (y_i - \alpha - \beta x_i) = 0 \quad (2)$$

Simplifying equations (1) and (2) we get two normal equations

$$\sum_{i=1}^n x_i = n\alpha + \beta \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \quad (3)$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i = \alpha \sum_{i=1}^n x_i + \beta \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 \quad (4)$$

Now solving equations (3) and (4) by Cramer's rule we have,

$$\beta = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} n & \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \\ \sum_{i=1}^n x_i & \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 \end{vmatrix}}{\begin{vmatrix} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i & \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i \\ \sum_{i=1}^n x_i & \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 \end{vmatrix}} = \frac{n \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i - \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \sum_{i=1}^n y_i}{n \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - \left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i \right)^2}$$

$$= \frac{\text{Cov}(X, Y)}{\text{Var}(X)} = \frac{r_{XY} \sigma_X \sigma_Y}{\sigma_X^2} = r_{XY} \frac{\sigma_Y}{\sigma_X}$$

= Regression coefficient of Y on X

If we multiply (1) by $\frac{1}{n}$ and (2) by $\frac{1}{n}$, then we obtain the following

$$\bar{Y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (a + bX_i + e_i)$$

$$\bar{Y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n a + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n bX_i + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n e_i$$

Again multiplying both sides by n and

$$\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i = n\bar{Y} + \sum_{i=1}^n e_i$$

$$\text{or } \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i = n\bar{Y} + \sum_{i=1}^n e_i \quad \text{or } \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i = n\bar{Y} + \sum_{i=1}^n e_i$$

It should be noted that β is the regression coefficient of Y on X and β^* is the regression coefficient of X on Y .

$$\text{Since } \beta = r_{XY} \frac{\sigma_Y}{\sigma_X} \text{ and } \beta^* = r_{XY} \frac{\sigma_X}{\sigma_Y}$$

$$\beta \beta^* = r_{XY}^2 \frac{\sigma_Y}{\sigma_X} \frac{\sigma_X}{\sigma_Y} = r_{XY}^2$$

The two regression lines (1) on X and (2) on Y will be called

orthogonal if $r_{XY} = 0$. The two regression lines will coincide if $r_{XY} = 1$ and they will be perpendicular to each other if $r_{XY} = 0$.

Example 2.1.1. We now consider a numerical example where we wish to find the regression on direct regression (i.e. Y on X) and reverse regression (i.e. X on Y) of the following data

X	10	1	10	5	8	6	6	7	9	10
Y	1	10	2	6	10	7	9	10		11

where X = labour-hours of work and Y = output

Solution. We know that the fitted direct regression equation (Y on X) is given by

$$\hat{Y} = a + bX \text{ where } b = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$$

and $a = \bar{Y} - b\bar{X}$ where $x_i = X_i - \bar{X}$ and $y_i = Y_i - \bar{Y}$ (converse y , the equation of the fitted reverse regression equation (X on Y) is given by

$$\hat{X} = a + b^*Y \text{ where } b^* = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2}, \text{ where } a = \bar{X} - b^*\bar{Y} \text{ and } x_i = X_i - \bar{X}$$

Calculations for direct and reverse regression lines

X	Y	1	2	Σ			
				X	Y	X ²	XY
1	2	10	1	10	2	100	20
2	3	10	2	20	6	400	60
3	4	10	3	30	12	900	120
4	5	10	4	40	20	1600	200
5	6	10	5	50	30	2500	300
6	7	10	6	60	42	3600	420
7	8	10	7	70	56	4900	560
8	9	10	8	80	72	6400	720
9	10	10	9	90	90	8100	900
Σ	Σ	Σ	Σ	Σ	Σ	Σ	Σ
45	57	90	45	450	360	4500	3600

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\Sigma X}{n} = \frac{450}{9} = 50, \quad \bar{Y} = \frac{\Sigma Y}{n} = \frac{360}{9} = 40$$

$$\text{Thus } \beta = \frac{\Sigma XY}{\Sigma X^2} = \frac{3600}{4500} = 0.8$$

$$\hat{Y} = \bar{Y} - \beta \bar{X} = 40 - 0.8 \times 50 = 0$$

Estimated regression equation of Y on X (direct regression) is given by

$$Y = \beta_1 X \text{ or } \hat{Y} = 0 + 0.8 X$$

$$\text{Again, } \rho = \frac{\Sigma XY}{\Sigma Y^2} = \frac{3600}{4500} = 0.8$$

$$\text{Thus } \hat{X} = \bar{X} - \rho \bar{Y} = 50 - 0.8 \times 40 = 10$$

Estimated reverse regression equation (X on Y) is given by $X = \bar{X} - \rho \bar{Y}$

$$\text{or } \hat{X} = 10 - 0.8 Y$$

It should be noted that $\beta = 0.8$ is the estimated regression coefficient of Y on X and $\rho = 0.8$ is the estimated regression coefficient of X on Y.

$$\text{Since } \beta = \rho = r_{XY}$$

$$r_{XY} = 0.8 = 0.890 \quad 0.5175 \approx 0.52 \text{ and } r_{YX} = 0.890 \approx 0.89$$

2.5.2. Scaling and Units of Measurement

In the regression analysis the units in which the regressand or the dependent variable (Y) and the regressor(s) are measured make difference in the regression results.

Suppose we like to regress Indian gross domestic savings (GDS) and gross domestic product (GDP), in rupees crore as well in rupees lakh measured in 1999-2001 prices. We

2.4. assume that in the regression of GDP on GDP one researcher uses data in rupees crore and another researcher uses data in rupees lakh. Now the natural question is whether the regression results will be the same in both cases? The two units in which the regression and regressor are measured make any difference in the regression results? What is the sensible course to follow in choosing units of measurement for regression analysis? To answer these questions, let us proceed as follows:

$$Y = \alpha + \beta X + u_1 \quad (1)$$

where Y = GDP and X = GDP. Let us define

$$Y^* = WY \quad (2)$$

$$\text{and } X^* = HX \quad (3)$$

where W and H are constants, called the scale factors. W may be equal to 1 or may be different. If Y and X are measured in say rupees crore and we want to express them in rupees lakh, we will have $Y^* = 100Y$ and $X^* = 100X$. Here $W = 100$ and $H = 100$.

Now consider the regression using Y^* and X^* variables

$$Y^* = \alpha^* + \beta^* X^* + u_1^* \quad (4)$$

where $Y^* = WY$, $X^* = HX$ and $u_1^* = Wu_1$ or $W = H = 1$.

Now comparing equations (1) and (4) we can find out the relationships between the following pairs:

1. α and α^*
2. β and β^*
3. $\text{Var}(\alpha)$ and $\text{Var}(\alpha^*)$
4. $\text{Var}(\beta)$ and $\text{Var}(\beta^*)$
5. σ_u^2 and $\sigma_{u^*}^2$
6. r_{YX}^2 and $r_{Y^*X^*}^2$

From the least squares theory we know that [applying OLS method on equation (1)]

$$\alpha = \bar{Y} - \beta \bar{X} \quad (5)$$

$$\beta = \frac{\sum x_i y_i}{\sum x_i^2} \quad (6) \text{ where } x_i = X_i - \bar{X} \text{ and } y_i = Y_i - \bar{Y}$$

$$\text{Var}(\alpha) = \frac{\sum y_i^2}{n \sum x_i^2} \sigma_u^2 \quad (7)$$

$$\text{Var}(\beta) = \frac{\sigma_u^2}{\sum x_i^2} \quad (8)$$

$$\text{and } \sigma_u^2 = \frac{\sum u_i^2}{n-2} \text{ or } \frac{\sum e_i^2}{n-2} \quad (9)$$

Analytically applying OLS method to equations (4) and (5) gives

$$\hat{\alpha}^* = Y^* - \hat{\beta}^* X^* \quad (10)$$

$$Y^* = \begin{bmatrix} y_1^* \\ \vdots \\ y_n^* \end{bmatrix}, \quad X^* = \begin{bmatrix} x_1^* & \dots & x_{k-1}^* \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ x_n^* & \dots & x_{k-1}^* \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{where } y_i^* = y_i/W_i \text{ and } x_i^* = x_i/W_i$$

$$\text{Var}(Y^*) = \frac{1}{n-2} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & \sigma_k^2 \end{bmatrix} \quad (11)$$

$$\text{Var}(\hat{\beta}^*) = \frac{\sigma_1^2}{\sum x_i^2} \quad (12)$$

$$\sigma_1^2 = \frac{\sum u_i^2}{n-2} \text{ or } \frac{\sum e_i^2}{n-2} \quad (13)$$

Thus we see that from model (1) α and β are the OLS estimators of α and β and from model (2) α^* and β^* are the OLS estimators of α^* and β^* . From the above results it is easy to establish relationship between two sets of parameters.

Since $Y^* = W Y$ (or $y_i^* = w_i y_i$), $X_i^* = W X_i$ (or $x_i^* = w_i x_i$), $\mu^* = \mu W$, $\hat{\beta}^* = W \hat{\beta}$ and $\hat{Y}^* = W \hat{Y}$ we can easily verify that

$$\hat{\beta}_1^* = \left(\frac{W_1}{W_2} \right) \hat{\beta} \quad (14)$$

$$\hat{\alpha}^* = W_1 \hat{\alpha} \quad (15)$$

$$\sigma_1^{*2} = W_1^2 \sigma_1^2 \quad (16)$$

$$\text{Var}(\hat{\alpha}^*) = W_1^2 \text{Var}(\hat{\alpha}) \quad (17)$$

$$\text{Var}(\hat{\beta}^*) = \frac{W_1^2}{W_2^2} \text{Var}(\hat{\beta}) \quad (18)$$

$$r_{Y^*}^2 = r_{Y^*}^2 \quad (19)$$

From the above results it is clear that from the regression results based on one scale of measurement, we can derive the results based on another scale of measurement once the scaling factors are known. From the results given in (14) to (20) we can also derive some special cases. For instance, if the scaling factors are identical (i.e. $W_1 = W_2$) the slope coefficient and its standard error remain unaffected in going from the (Y, X) to the (Y^*, X^*) scale. However the intercept and its standard error are both multiplied by W (when $W = W_1$). But if the X scale is not changed (i.e. $W = 1$) and the Y scale is changed by the factor W , the slope as well as the intercept coefficients and their respective standard errors are all multiplied by the same W factor. Finally, if the Y scale

intercept is unchanged, but the Y -scale is changed by the factor k . If the slope coefficient and its standard error are multiplied by the factor k , the r -value, the t -value of the slope coefficient and the standard error remain unaffected.

It should, however, be noted that the transformation of variables from X to kX in the $Y = a + bX$ case does not affect the properties of the least-squares estimators.

To illustrate the above theoretical results we consider an example showing the relationship between Y (in Rs.) and GDP (in lakhs) during the period 1955-56 to 1964-65.

The estimated regression equation of GDP on Y for 1955 and 1964-65 in rupees crore is given by

$$\hat{GDP}_t = 67423.17 + 0.0016 Y_t \quad (21)$$

$$SE = (1772.08174) (0.002) \quad r^2 = 0.8891$$

Similarly, the estimated regression equation of GDP on GDP (in lakhs) and Y (in rupees crore) is given by

$$\hat{GDP}_t = 67423.17 + 0.0016 GDP_t \quad (22)$$

$$SE = (1772.08174) (0.002) \quad r^2 = 0.8891$$

Here we see that the intercept and its standard error is 100 times the corresponding values in the regression (21) (we should note that $Y = 100$ is going from one crore to one lakh of rupees, i.e., crore = 100 lakhs), but the slope coefficient as well as its standard error is unchanged, in accordance with the theory.

Now suppose we measure GDP in rupees crore and Y in rupees lakh, the estimated regression equation becomes

$$\hat{GDP}_t = 167423.17 + 0.0016 GDP_t \quad (23)$$

$$SE = (1772.08174) (0.002) \quad r^2 = 0.8891$$

As expected, the slope coefficient as well as the standard error is 100 times its value in equation (21) since only Y in GDP scale is changed.

If we express GDP in rupees lakh and GDP in rupees crore, the estimated regression equation becomes

$$\hat{GDP}_t = 67423.17 + 0.0016 GDP_t \quad (24)$$

$$SE = (1772.08174) (0.002) \quad r^2 = 0.8891$$

Here we see that both the intercept and the slope coefficients as well as their respective standard errors are 100 times their values in equation (21) in accordance with our theoretical results.

It should be noted that the r -value remains the same in all the cases as it is invariant to changes in the unit of measurement and scales.

2.7 Estimation of a Function whose Intercept is Zero

In some cases economic theory postulates relationships which have a zero intercept that is, they pass through the origin of the (X, Y) plane. For example, long-run consumption function of the form $C = bY$ where $b = APC = MPC$ (C = consumption expenditure = income).

in this event we should estimate the function $y = \alpha + \beta x = u$, imposing the

restriction $u = 1$. The formula for the estimation of β then becomes $\beta = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$ which

involves the actual values of the variables, and not their deviations, as in the case of unrestricted value of u .

Proof We want to fit the line $y = \alpha + \beta x = u_i$ subject to the restriction $u = 0$. To estimate β , the problem is put in a form of restricted minimization problem and then Lagrange method is applied.

Now we have to minimize

$$\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \alpha - \beta x_i)^2$$

subject to $\alpha = 0$.

The Lagrange composite function then becomes $L = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \alpha - \beta x_i)^2 + \lambda \alpha$ where

λ is the Lagrange multiplier. Now we have to minimize L with respect to α , β and λ . First order conditions of minimization require

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \alpha} = -2 \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \alpha - \beta x_i) + \lambda = 0 \quad (1)$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \beta} = -2 \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \alpha - \beta x_i) x_i = 0 \quad (2)$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \lambda} = \alpha = 0 \quad (3)$$

Now substituting (3) in (2) and rearranging we get

$$-2 \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \beta x_i) = 0$$

$$\sigma^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 - \beta^2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 = 0 \quad \beta = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$$

In this case $\sigma^2 = \sigma_u^2 = \sigma_e^2$ (or 1) (3) $\text{Var}(\hat{\beta}) = \sigma^2 / \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2$ $\text{Cov}(\hat{\beta}, \hat{\alpha}) = -\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i^2$

2.6 Estimation of Elasticities from an Estimated Regression Line

The estimated regression equation is $\hat{Y} = \alpha + \beta X$ where α and β are

α is the intercept on the Y -axis with respect to X i.e. $\beta = \frac{\Delta Y}{\Delta X}$ which shows or rate of change

in Y as X changes by a very small amount. It should be clear that the estimated

function is a linear demand or supply function. The coefficient β is not the price elasticity but a component of the elasticity which is defined by the formula

$$\eta_p = \frac{\Delta Y}{\Delta X} \times \frac{X}{Y}$$

where η_p = price elasticity, X = quantity (demanded or supplied), Y = price.

β is the component $\frac{\Delta Y}{\Delta X}$. From an estimated function we can obtain the average

elasticity $\eta_p = \beta \frac{\bar{X}}{\bar{Y}}$ where \bar{X} = the average price in the sample, \bar{Y} = average regression

value of the quantity, i.e. the mean value as estimated from the regression $\bar{Y} = \alpha + \beta \bar{X}$

average value of the quantity in the sample. It should be noted that $\bar{Y} = \bar{Y}$ since

$$\bar{Y} = \alpha + \beta \bar{X}$$

$$\bar{Y} = \alpha + \beta \bar{X} = \bar{Y} - \beta \bar{X} + \beta \bar{X} = \bar{Y}$$

In particular if $Y = \alpha + \beta X$ is the regression equation then the estimated average

elasticity $\eta_p = \beta \frac{\bar{X}}{\bar{Y}}$ where $\bar{Y} = \alpha + \beta \bar{X}$

Now substituting for \bar{Y} in the expression of elasticity we obtain $\eta_p = \frac{\beta \bar{X}}{\alpha + \beta \bar{X}}$

If the function $Y = \alpha + \beta X$ represents a supply function with $\beta > 0$, it follows that

(i) the supply function will be elastic ($\eta_p > 1$) if α is negative ($\alpha < 0$)

(ii) the supply function will be inelastic ($\eta_p < 1$) if $\alpha > 0$

(iii) the supply function will have unitary elasticity ($\eta_p = 1$) if $\alpha = 0$

Thus the elasticity of a supply curve (with positive slope) depends on the sign of

the constant intercept α

Example 2.2 The following table includes the price and quantity demanded of the product of a monopolist over a six year period.

Year	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Quantity (000 Kg.)	3	3	4	4	8	0
Price (00 ₹)	2	4	3	1	3	5

(a) Estimate the demand function, assuming a linear demand function. (b) Compute the

the values of the estimated coefficients (α and β) on the basis of economic theory

(b) Estimate the average elasticity of demand

(c) Estimate the elasticity of demand at the price 4.

(d) Forecast the level of demand if price rises to 5. Comment on your forecast.

Solution: (a) Let $Y = \alpha + \beta X$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, 6$ be the linear demand function. By the OLS method we can get the estimators of α and β . Here Y = demand, X = price. α and β are two parameters. Theoretically we may assume $\alpha > 0$, $\beta < 0$. By OLS method

$$\hat{\beta} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \quad \text{where } x_i = X_i - \bar{X}, \quad y_i = Y_i - \bar{Y} \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{\alpha} = \bar{Y} - \hat{\beta} \bar{X} \quad \bar{X} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i}{n}$$

Calculations for the parameters (α , β)

Year	quantity	price	$x_i = Y_i - \bar{Y}$	$x_i = X_i - \bar{X}$	$x_i y_i$	x_i^2
(i)	(1000 kg)	(100 ₹)				
	Y_i	X_i				
2014 (1)	8	2	3	1	3	
2015 (2)	3	4	2	1	2	1
2016 (3)	4	3	-1	0	0	
2017 (4)	7	1	-2	2	-4	4
2018 (5)	8	3	3	0	0	0
2019 (6)	0	5	-5	3	-15	9
$n = 6$ Total	$\sum Y_i = 30$	$\sum X_i = 18$	$\sum x_i = 0$	$\sum x_i = 0$	$\sum x_i y_i = -19$	$\sum x_i^2 = 14$

$$\hat{\bar{Y}} = \frac{\sum Y_i}{n} = \frac{30}{6} = 5, \quad \hat{\bar{X}} = \frac{\sum X_i}{n} = \frac{18}{6} = 3$$

$$\text{Now } \hat{\beta} = \frac{\sum x_i y_i}{\sum x_i^2} = \frac{-19}{14} = -1.36$$

$$\text{and } \hat{\alpha} = \bar{Y} - \hat{\beta} \bar{X} = 5 - (-1.36) \times 3 = 5 + 4.08 = 9.08$$

Thus the OLS estimators of α and β are $\alpha = 9.08 > 0$ and $\beta = -1.36 < 0$.

Therefore the estimated demand function is $Y = \alpha + \beta X$ or $Y = \hat{Y} = 9.08 - 1.36X$.

This is consistent with the theory where we assume $\alpha > 0$ and $\beta < 0$. This clearly shows that there exists an inverse relation between price and demand i.e. the law of demand holds true.

(b) The average elasticity (price elasticity of demand) is given by,

$$\eta_p = \beta \frac{X}{Y} = -1.36 \times \frac{3}{5} = -0.816 \text{ or } \eta_p = 0.816 < 1$$

This means that the demand function shows an elastic demand.

(c) We have to estimate η_p (price elasticity of demand) from the estimated relation

$$\hat{Y} = 9.08 - 1.36X \text{ when price } = X = 4$$

$$\text{If } X = 4, \hat{Y} = 9.08 - 1.36 \times 4 = 9.08 - 5.44 = 3.64$$

$$\text{Now } \eta_p \text{ (at } X = 4) = \frac{X}{Y} \frac{dY}{dX} = \frac{4}{3.64} \times -1.36 = -1.48 = -148\%$$

$$\eta_p \text{ at } X = 4 \text{ is } -148\% < -1$$

This implies that the demand is elastic demand.

where Q is the quantity demanded and P is the price. The demand curve is downward sloping, i.e., $dQ/dP < 0$.

where Q is the quantity supplied and P is the price.

where Q is the quantity supplied and P is the price.

This means that the price of a good is determined by the intersection of the demand and supply curves.

The following table shows the price and quantity demanded and supplied.

Example 2.3 The following table shows the price of observations in a price run.

Quantity supplied

$N = 12$ observations

Quantity demanded

Price (in 100 Rs)

Assuming a linear supply function estimate the supply function on the basis of the values of the estimated coefficients α and β on the basis of economic theory.

Estimate the average price elasticity of supply.

Estimate the elasticity of supply at the price of 100 Rs.

Estimate the elasticity of supply at the price of 100 Rs.

Solution Let $Q = \alpha + \beta P$ for $P = 100$ Rs. the linear supply function is

method we can get the estimates of α and β (here Q = quantity, P = price, α = intercept, β = slope).

parameters. Theoretically we may assume $\alpha \geq 0$ and $\beta > 0$. By the method we may get

$$\beta = \frac{\sum (P_i - \bar{P})(Q_i - \bar{Q})}{\sum (P_i - \bar{P})^2} \text{ where } \bar{P} = \frac{\sum P_i}{n}, \bar{Q} = \frac{\sum Q_i}{n}$$

$$\text{and } \alpha = \bar{Q} - \beta \bar{P} \quad Y = \sum Y_i, n = \sum 1 = 12$$

Calculations for the OLS estimators of parameters (α, β)

Observations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
n	Quantity demanded	Price (in 100 Rs)	$Q_i - \bar{Q}$	$P_i - \bar{P}$	$(Q_i - \bar{Q})^2$	$(P_i - \bar{P})^2$	$(Q_i - \bar{Q})(P_i - \bar{P})$					
1	69	9	-11	-1	121	1	11					
2	70	12	-10	2	100	4	-20					
3	52	6	-18	-1	324	1	18					
4	46	10	-24	0	576	0	0					
5	57	9	-13	-1	169	1	13					
6	77	10	7	1	49	1	7					
7	78	7	8	-2	64	4	-16					
8	55	8	-15	-1	225	1	15					
9	67	12	-3	2	9	4	-6					
10	53	6	-17	-1	289	1	17					
11	72	1	2	-3	4	9	-6					
12	64	8	-14	1	196	1	-14					
Total	$\sum Q = 756$	$\sum P = 98$	$\sum (Q_i - \bar{Q}) = 0$	$\sum (P_i - \bar{P}) = 0$	$\sum (Q_i - \bar{Q})^2 = 1440$	$\sum (P_i - \bar{P})^2 = 44$	$\sum (Q_i - \bar{Q})(P_i - \bar{P}) = 144$					

$$\bar{y} = \frac{\sum y}{n} = \frac{56}{7} = 8 \quad \bar{x} = \frac{\sum x}{n} = \frac{56}{7} = 8$$

ii. Now the OLS estimators of the regression parameters α and β are given by

$$\beta = \frac{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2} = \frac{56}{44} = 1.25$$

$$\text{and } \alpha = \bar{y} - \beta \bar{x} = 8 - 1.25 \times 8 = 8 - 10.25 = -2.25$$

Thus the estimated supply function is $Y = \alpha + \beta X$ or $\hat{Y} = -2.25 + 1.25X$

Here we see that $\alpha = -2.25 < 0$ and $\beta = 1.25 > 0$. This means that there is a direct (positive) relation between supply and price. The intercept of the supply function is positive here. Hence our results are consistent with the theory.

iii. Average price elasticity of supply is given by $\eta_p = \left(\frac{1}{Y} \right) \times \beta \times X = \frac{1}{8} \times 1.25 \times 8 = 1.25$

This shows that at the average price the supply is unit elastic.

iv. We have to find price elasticity of supply at price 6.

Since the estimated supply function is

$$Y = \alpha + \beta X \text{ or } Y = -2.25 + 1.25X$$

$$\text{Now, if } X = 6, Y = -2.25 + 1.25 \times 6 = -2.25 + 7.5 = 5.25$$

$$\text{Now by definition price elasticity of supply } \eta_p = \left(\frac{Y}{X} \right) \times \frac{dY}{dX} = \frac{5.25}{5.25} \times 1.25 = 1.25$$

Thus $\eta_p = 0.366$ when $X = 6$.

v. From the estimated supply function we see that $Y = -2.25 + 1.25X$

When $X = 6$, $Y = 5.25$

If now price increases to 8 i.e., if $X = 8$

$$\text{then } Y = -2.25 + 1.25 \times 8 = -2.25 + 10 = 7.75$$

this means that when $X = 6$, $Y = 5.25$

and when $Y = 8$, $X = 8.25$

Thus we may forecast that as price increases supply will also increase.

2.9. Properties of Least Squares Estimators

The least squares estimates are called BLUE (Best Linear Unbiased Estimates) provided that the random term u satisfies some general assumptions, namely, (i) u has zero mean and constant variance. This proposition together with the set of conditions under which it is true is known as **Gauss Markov least-Squares Theorem**.

The OLS estimators possess three properties. They are linear unbiased and have the smallest variance compared to other linear unbiased estimators. Thus the OLS estimators are BLUE.

1. The property of linearity

The least-squares estimates α and β are linear functions of the observed sample values Y .

$$\text{Since } \hat{\beta} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i (X_i - \bar{X})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}$$

$$\text{and } \hat{\alpha} = \bar{Y} - \hat{\beta}\bar{X}$$

$$\text{Now } \hat{\beta} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i (X_i - \bar{X})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}$$

$$= \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i (X_i - \bar{X})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i X_i - \bar{Y} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2 - 2\bar{X} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i + n\bar{X}^2} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i X_i - \bar{Y} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}$$

$$\hat{\beta} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i Y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \quad \text{where } x_i = (X_i - \bar{X})$$

$$\text{Let us suppose that } x_i = K_i (i = 1, 2, \dots, n)$$

$$\hat{\beta} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n K_i Y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n K_i^2}$$

This shows that $\hat{\beta}$ is a linear function of Y_i .

$$\text{Similarly, } \hat{\alpha} = \bar{Y} - \hat{\beta}\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i - \bar{X} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n K_i Y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n K_i^2} \quad \left[\text{where } \beta = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n K_i Y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n K_i^2} \right]$$

$$\hat{\alpha} = \sum_{i=1}^n \left[\frac{1}{n} - \frac{\bar{X} K_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n K_i^2} \right] Y_i$$

This shows that $\hat{\alpha}$ is a linear function of Y_i .

Thus both $\hat{\alpha}$ and $\hat{\beta}$ are expressed as linear functions of the Y_i s.

2 The property of unbiasedness

The means of $\hat{\alpha}$, $E(\hat{\alpha})$ and $\hat{\beta}$, $E(\hat{\beta})$ can be obtained as follows

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Since } \hat{\beta} &= \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y}) + n\bar{y}}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x}) + n\bar{x}} \\ &= \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n y_i - n\bar{y}}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i - n\bar{x}} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n y_i - n\bar{y}}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i - n\bar{x}} \end{aligned}$$

and $x_i = x_i - \bar{x}$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$

$$\hat{\beta} = \sum_{i=1}^n K_i Y_i \text{ where } K_i = \frac{x_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \text{ and } \alpha = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{n} \bar{y} K_i$$

Now $\hat{\beta} = \sum_{i=1}^n K_i Y_i$ We now put $Y_i = \alpha + \beta x_i + u_i$

$$\hat{\beta} = \sum_{i=1}^n K_i (\alpha + \beta x_i + u_i) = \alpha \sum_{i=1}^n K_i + \beta \sum_{i=1}^n K_i x_i + \sum_{i=1}^n K_i u_i$$

$$\text{Since } K_i = \frac{x_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \quad \sum_{i=1}^n K_i = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} = 0, \text{ as } \sum_{i=1}^n x_i = 0$$

and $\sum_{i=1}^n K_i x_i = \sum_{i=1}^n K_i (x_i + \bar{x})$ where $x_i = x_i - \bar{x}$ and $\bar{x} = x_i + \bar{x}$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n K_i x_i + \bar{x} \sum_{i=1}^n K_i = \sum_{i=1}^n K_i x_i \left[\because \sum_{i=1}^n K_i = 0 \right]$$

$$\text{Now } \sum_{i=1}^n K_i x_i = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i x_i / \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} = 1 \text{ as } K_i = \frac{x_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$$

If we put $\sum_{i=1}^n K_i = \text{diag } \sum_{i=1}^n K_i$ in the expression of

$$b = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n K_i + \sum_{i=1}^n K_i + \sum_{i=1}^n K_i \right)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n K_i u_i$$

$$\text{Now mean of } (b - \beta) = E(b) - \beta = \sum_{i=1}^n K_i E(u_i) = 0 \quad \text{as } E(u_i) = 0$$

but we have $E(b) = \beta$ i.e. mean of b is β

$$\text{Similarly } \sum_{i=1}^n K_i = \text{diag } \sum_{i=1}^n K_i$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n K_i = \text{diag } \sum_{i=1}^n K_i = \text{diag } \sum_{i=1}^n K_i$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n K_i = \text{diag } \sum_{i=1}^n K_i = \text{diag } \sum_{i=1}^n K_i = \text{diag } \sum_{i=1}^n K_i$$

Since $\sum_{i=1}^n K_i = 0$, $\sum_{i=1}^n K_i = 1$, $\sum_{i=1}^n 1 = n$ we have

$$b = (1 + \beta) \sum_{i=1}^n K_i = \beta \sum_{i=1}^n K_i$$

$$\text{or } \alpha = \sigma^2 \sum_{i=1}^n K_i, \quad \bar{y} \sum_{i=1}^n K_i u_i, \quad \text{or } E(b) = E(\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^n K_i E(u_i)$$

$$E(b) = \alpha \Rightarrow E(b) = 0$$

This shows that mean of b is α

Thus it is proven that α and β are unbiased estimators of α and

1 The minimum variance property

In this property we shall prove the Gauss Markov Theorem which states that the least squares estimates are best (have the smallest variance) as compared to any other linear unbiased estimator obtained from other econometric methods.

First we have to find $\text{var}(b)$ and $\text{var}(\alpha)$ and then we have to prove the minimum variance property.

$$\text{Variance of } b = \text{var}(b) = E(b - E(b))^2 = E(b - \alpha)^2 \text{ as } E(b) = \alpha$$

Since $\beta = \bar{y} + \sum_{i=1}^n \bar{K}_i u_i$ (see property 2)

$$\beta - \bar{y} = \sum_{i=1}^n \bar{K}_i u_i$$

$$\text{or } E(\beta - \bar{y}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \bar{K}_i E(u_i) \quad \text{or } E(\beta - \bar{y}) = E \left[\sum_{i=1}^n \bar{K}_i u_i \right]$$

$$\text{or } \text{var}(\beta) = E \left[\sum_{i=1}^n \bar{K}_i^2 u_i^2 + 2 \sum_{i \neq j} \bar{K}_i \bar{K}_j u_i u_j \right]$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n \bar{K}_i^2 E(u_i^2) + 2 \sum_{i \neq j} \bar{K}_i \bar{K}_j E(u_i u_j)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n \bar{K}_i^2 E(u_i^2) \quad [E(u_i u_j) = 0, \text{ for } i \neq j]$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n \bar{K}_i^2 \sigma_u^2 \quad [E(u_i^2) = \sigma_u^2]$$

$$= \sigma_u^2 \left[\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \bar{K}_i^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n \bar{K}_i^2} \right] = \sigma_u^2 \left[\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \bar{K}_i^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n \bar{K}_i^2} \right]$$

$$= \sigma_u^2 \quad \text{var}(\beta) = \frac{\sigma_u^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n \bar{K}_i^2}$$

Similarly, Variance of α is given

Since $\alpha = \bar{y} - \beta \bar{X}$ (see property 1)

Substituting $\beta = \bar{y} + \sum_{i=1}^n \bar{K}_i u_i$ we obtain $\alpha = \bar{y} - \bar{X} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \bar{K}_i u_i \right)$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \bar{K}_i \bar{y} - \bar{X} \sum_{i=1}^n \bar{K}_i \bar{y} = \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\bar{K}_i - \bar{X} \bar{K}_i \right) \bar{y}$$

$$\text{Now } \text{var } \alpha = \text{var } \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{n} Y_i = \sum_{i=1}^n \left[\frac{1}{n} \text{var } Y_i \right] \text{ var } Y_i$$

$$\text{Since } \text{var } Y_i = \sigma_u^2$$

$$\text{var } \alpha = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{n} \text{var } Y_i = \sigma_u^2$$

$$\sigma_u^2 \sum_{i=1}^n \left[\frac{1}{n} \text{var } Y_i \right] = \sigma_u^2 \sum_{i=1}^n \left[\frac{1}{n} \text{var } Y_i + \frac{1}{n} \text{var } Y_i \right]$$

$$= \sigma_u^2 \left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \text{var } Y_i \right] = \sigma_u^2 \left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \text{var } Y_i \right] \quad \sum_{i=1}^n \text{var } Y_i = 0 \text{ and } \sum_{i=1}^n \text{var } Y_i = \frac{1}{n} \text{ where } \text{var } Y_i = \sum_{i=1}^n \text{var } Y_i$$

$$= \sigma_u^2 \left[\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \text{var } Y_i - n \text{var } Y_i}{n \sum_{i=1}^n \text{var } Y_i} \right] = \sigma_u^2 \left[\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \text{var } Y_i}{n \sum_{i=1}^n \text{var } Y_i} \right]$$

$$\text{var } \alpha = \sigma_u^2 \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{n} \text{var } Y_i$$

$$\left[\sum_{i=1}^n \text{var } Y_i + n \text{var } Y_i = \sum_{i=1}^n \text{var } Y_i + n \text{var } Y_i = \sum_{i=1}^n \text{var } Y_i + 2n \sum_{i=1}^n \text{var } Y_i + n \text{var } Y_i \right. \\ \left. = \sum_{i=1}^n \text{var } Y_i + 2n \text{var } Y_i + 2n \text{var } Y_i = \sum_{i=1}^n \text{var } Y_i \right]$$

Case (a) β has the least variance.

$$\text{We know that } \text{var}(\beta) = \sigma_u^2 / \sum_{i=1}^n \text{var } Y_i$$

Now we want to prove that any other linear unbiased estimate of the true parameter for example β^* obtained from any other econometric method, has a bigger variance than the least squares estimate β . Thus we have to prove that $\text{var } \beta < \text{var } \beta^*$.

Proof The new estimator β^* is by assumption a linear combination of the Y_i 's, a weighted sum of the sample values Y_i , the weights $\pi_i = \pi / \sum_{i=1}^n \pi_i^2$ being a linear function of the weights of the least-squares estimates.

For example, let us assume $\beta^* = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i \bar{X}_i$, where $c_i = K + d$, d is an arbitrary set of weights (different from the same) to the X_i 's. c_i is not $\bar{Y} = \beta(X) + u_i$ in the expression of β^* and we obtain

$$\beta^* = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i (X_i + \beta(X) + u_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n (\alpha c_i + \beta c_i X_i + c_i u_i)$$

It is assumed that the $\beta = \beta^*$ is also an unbiased estimator of $\beta = E(\beta^*) = \beta$

$$\text{Now } E(\beta^*) = E\left[\sum_{i=1}^n (\alpha c_i + \beta c_i X_i + c_i u_i)\right]$$

$$= E\left[\alpha \sum_{i=1}^n c_i + \beta \sum_{i=1}^n c_i X_i + \sum_{i=1}^n c_i u_i\right]$$

Now $E(\beta^*) = \beta$ if, and only if

$$\sum_{i=1}^n c_i = 0, \quad \sum_{i=1}^n c_i X_i = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{i=1}^n c_i u_i = 0$$

But $\sum_{i=1}^n c_i = 0$ implies $\sum_{i=1}^n d_i = 0$ because

$$\sum_{i=1}^n c_i = \sum_{i=1}^n (K + d_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n K_i + \sum_{i=1}^n d_i \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{i=1}^n K_i = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2} = 0 \quad \text{as} \quad \sum_{i=1}^n X_i = 0$$

$$\therefore \sum_{i=1}^n c_i = \sum_{i=1}^n d_i. \quad \text{Therefore if } \sum_{i=1}^n c_i = 0, \quad \text{then } \sum_{i=1}^n d_i = 0$$

$$\text{Similarly } \sum_{i=1}^n c_i X_i = 1 \quad \text{requires} \quad \sum_{i=1}^n d_i X_i = 0,$$

$$\text{Since } \sum_{i=1}^n c_i X_i = \sum_{i=1}^n (K_i + d_i) X_i = \sum_{i=1}^n K_i X_i + \sum_{i=1}^n d_i X_i,$$

$$\text{Given that } \sum_{i=1}^n K_i X_i = 1, \quad \sum_{i=1}^n c_i X_i = 1 \quad \text{if} \quad \sum_{i=1}^n d_i X_i = 0$$

Thus β^* will be a linear unbiased estimate of β (with weights $c_i = K_i + d_i$) if

$$\sum_{i=1}^n c_i = 0, \quad \sum_{i=1}^n d_i = 0, \quad \sum_{i=1}^n c_i X_i = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{i=1}^n d_i X_i = 0$$

Since $\sigma_u^2 \sum_{i=1}^n C_i^2 = 1$ it proves that $E(\alpha(\beta^*)) = E(\alpha(\beta)) = \alpha$ for $\alpha = E(\alpha(\beta^*))$.

Thus it is proved that β^* is the BLUE of β .

Case (b) In the same way it can be proved that the least squares constant intercept α possesses minimum variance. We take a new estimator α^* which we assume to be a linear function of the Y 's with weights $C_i = A_i + d_i$,

$$\text{where } A_i = \frac{1}{\sum_{j=1}^n 1}.$$

$$\text{Since } \alpha = \sum_{i=1}^n A_i Y_i$$

$$\text{Similarly, } \alpha^* = \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{1}{n} + C_i \right) Y_i \quad (1)$$

This shows that like α , α^* is also a linear function in Y 's.

Now α^* is to be regarded as an unbiased estimator of α ($E(\alpha^*) = \alpha$).

We substitute for $Y_i = \alpha + \beta X_i + u_i$ in α^* and we get,

$$\alpha^* = \alpha \left[\bar{X} \sum_{i=1}^n C_i \right] + \beta \left[\bar{X} \sum_{i=1}^n C_i X_i \right] + \sum_{i=1}^n \left[\frac{1}{n} + C_i \right] u_i$$

$$\text{Now } E(\alpha^*) = \alpha \left[\bar{X} \sum_{i=1}^n C_i \right] + \beta \left[\bar{X} \sum_{i=1}^n C_i X_i \right] + E \left[\sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{1}{n} + C_i \right) u_i \right]$$

$$\text{Now } E(\alpha^*) = \alpha \text{ if and only if } \sum_{i=1}^n C_i = 0, \sum_{i=1}^n C_i X_i = 1 \text{ and } \sum_{i=1}^n C_i u_i = 0$$

$$\text{These conditions imply } \sum_{i=1}^n d_i = 0 \text{ and } \sum_{i=1}^n d_i X_i = 0$$

The variance of α^* is given by

$$\text{Var}(\alpha^*) = E[\alpha^* - E(\alpha^*)]^2 = E[\alpha^* - \alpha]^2$$

$$\sigma_u^2 \sum_{i=1}^n \left[\frac{1}{n} + C_i \right]^2 = \sigma_u^2 \sum_{i=1}^n \left[\frac{1}{n^2} + \frac{2}{n} C_i + C_i^2 \right]$$

$$= \sigma_u^2 \left[\frac{n}{n^2} + 2A \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n C_i + \sum_{i=1}^n C_i^2 \right] = \sigma_u^2 \left[\frac{1}{n} + \bar{X}^2 \sum_{i=1}^n C_i^2 + \frac{2}{n} \bar{X} \sum_{i=1}^n C_i \right]$$

$$\text{Since } \sum_{i=1}^n C_i = 0 \text{ and } \sum_{i=1}^n C_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n A_i^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n d_i^2$$

we have $\text{Var}(\alpha^*) = \sigma_u^2 \left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{\bar{X}^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2} \right) = \sigma_u^2 \left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n d_i^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2} \right)$

$$\sigma_u^2 = \frac{1}{n} + \frac{\bar{X}^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2} = \sigma_u^2 \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n d_i^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2} \right) \text{ where } \sum_{i=1}^n d_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2$$

$$\text{Var}(\alpha^*) = \sigma_u^2 \left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{\bar{X}^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2} \right) = \sigma_u^2 \left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n d_i^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2} \right) \text{ or, } \text{Var}(\alpha^*) = \text{Var}(\hat{\alpha}) + \sigma_u^2 \left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n d_i^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2} \right)$$

Here $\sum_{i=1}^n d_i^2 > 0$, because all d_i 's are not zero

Thus we have, $\text{Var}(\alpha^*) > \text{Var}(\hat{\alpha})$ or, $\text{Var}(\hat{\alpha}) < \text{Var}(\alpha^*)$

Hence it is proved that $\hat{\alpha}$ is the BLUE of α .

2.10. The Variance of the Random Variable, u

The formulae of the variance of $\hat{\alpha}$ and $\hat{\beta}$ involve the variance of the random term u , σ_u^2 . However, the true variance of u , cannot be computed since the values of u_i are not observable. But we may obtain an unbiased estimate of σ_u^2 from the expression

$$\hat{\sigma}_u^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 / (n - 2) \text{ where } e_i = Y_i - \hat{Y}_i, \hat{Y}_i = \hat{\alpha} + \beta \hat{X}_i$$

[Y is the observed value and \hat{Y}_i is the estimated value i.e. $Y = \alpha + \beta X_i + u_i$ and $\hat{Y} = \hat{\alpha} + \beta \hat{X}_i$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$]

Proof One property of the regression line $\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\alpha} + \beta \hat{X}_i$ is that it passes through the point (\bar{X}, \bar{Y}) . So, $\bar{Y} = \hat{\alpha} + \beta \bar{X}$

Again we know that $\hat{Y} = \alpha + \beta \bar{X} + u$ from the observed relationship

$$\left[\text{Where } Y_i = \alpha + \beta X_i + u_i, \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i = n\alpha + \beta \sum_{i=1}^n X_i + \sum_{i=1}^n u_i \right]$$

$$\text{or, } \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i / n = \alpha + \beta \sum_{i=1}^n X_i / n + \sum_{i=1}^n u_i / n \text{ or, } \bar{Y} = \alpha + \beta \bar{X} + \bar{u}$$

$$\text{Since } e_i = Y_i - \hat{Y}_i$$

$$= (1 - \beta)(Y - \bar{Y}) - (\alpha + \beta\bar{X} - \bar{u}) - (\beta\bar{X} - \bar{u} - \alpha - \beta\bar{X})$$

$$= [\beta(X_i - \bar{X}) + (u_i - \bar{u})] - [\beta(X_i - \bar{X})]$$

$$e_i = (\beta - \beta) x_i + (u_i - \bar{u}) \text{ where } x_i = X_i - \bar{X}$$

$$\text{or } e^2 = (\beta - \beta)^2 x_i^2 + (u_i - \bar{u})^2 - 2x_i(\beta - \beta)u_i + u_i$$

$$= (\beta - \beta)^2 x^2 + (u_i - \bar{u})^2 - 2(\beta - \beta)x_i u_i + u_i$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 = (\beta - \beta)^2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n (u_i - \bar{u})^2 - 2(\beta - \beta) \sum_{i=1}^n x_i u_i + n \sum_{i=1}^n u_i$$

$$= \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i u_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 + \left[\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n u_i}{n} \right]^2 \right\} - 2 \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i u_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i u_i$$

$$\text{Since } \hat{\beta} = \beta + \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i u_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \quad \beta - \hat{\beta} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i u_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$$

$$\text{Again, } \sum_{i=1}^n (u_i - \bar{u})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n u_i^2 - 2\bar{u} \sum_{i=1}^n u_i + \sum_{i=1}^n \bar{u}^2$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n u_i^2 - 2\bar{u} \cdot n \cdot \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n u_i + n\bar{u}^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n u_i^2 - 2n\bar{u}^2 + n\bar{u}^2$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n u_i^2 - n\bar{u}^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n u_i^2 - n \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n u_i}{n} \right)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n u_i^2 - \frac{(\sum_{i=1}^n u_i)^2}{n}$$

$$\text{and } 2(\beta - \hat{\beta}) \sum_{i=1}^n x_i u_i - \bar{u} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i = 2 \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i u_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i u_i = 2 \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i u_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 \cdot \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n u_i}{n} = 0$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n u_i^2 - \frac{\left(\sum_{i=1}^n u_i \right)^2}{n} + \frac{\left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i u_i \right)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$$

$$\text{or } \sum_{j=1}^n y_j^2 = \sum_{j=1}^n u_j^2 + \sum_{j=1}^n \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i x_{ij} \right)^2 + \sum_{j=1}^n \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i x_{ij} \right) \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i x_{ij} \right) + \sum_{j=1}^n \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i x_{ij} \right)^2$$

$$E \left[\sum_{j=1}^n y_j^2 \right] = \sum_{j=1}^n E \left[u_j^2 \right] + \sum_{j=1}^n E \left[\left(\sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i x_{ij} \right)^2 \right] + \sum_{j=1}^n E \left[\left(\sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i x_{ij} \right) \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i x_{ij} \right) \right] + \sum_{j=1}^n E \left[\left(\sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i x_{ij} \right)^2 \right]$$

$$= \left[\sum_{j=1}^n \sigma_u^2 + \sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i^2 x_{ij}^2 + \sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i \beta_k x_{ij} x_{kj} + \sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i^2 x_{ij}^2 \right] \quad \left(E \left[u_j^2 \right] = \sigma_u^2 \text{ and } E \left[u_j u_k \right] = 0 \right)$$

$$\text{or } E \left[\sum_{j=1}^n y_j^2 \right] = \sum_{j=1}^n \left(\sigma_u^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i^2 x_{ij}^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i \beta_k x_{ij} x_{kj} + \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i^2 x_{ij}^2 \right)$$

$$= n \sigma_u^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i^2 \sum_{j=1}^n x_{ij}^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i \beta_k \sum_{j=1}^n x_{ij} x_{kj} + \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i^2 \sum_{j=1}^n x_{ij}^2$$

$$\text{or } E \left[\sum_{j=1}^n y_j^2 \right] = n \sigma_u^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i^2 \sum_{j=1}^n x_{ij}^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i \beta_k \sum_{j=1}^n x_{ij} x_{kj} + \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i^2 \sum_{j=1}^n x_{ij}^2$$

$$\text{So, } \sum_{j=1}^n y_j^2 - (n-2) \sigma_u^2 \text{ is an unbiased estimator of } \sigma_u^2. \text{ If we define}$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^n y_j^2 - (n-2) \sigma_u^2 = \sigma_u^2 \text{ then } \sigma_u^2 \text{ is an unbiased estimator of } \sigma_u^2$$

2.8. Maximum Likelihood Estimators (MLE's) of α , β and σ_u^2

If each $u_i | Y_i = \alpha + \beta Y_i$ is normal & distributed with mean 0 and variance σ_u^2 , i.e., $u_i \sim N(0, \sigma_u^2)$ and u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n are independent, then MLE's of α and β are equivalent to the OLS estimators of α and β (i.e. $\hat{\alpha}$ and $\hat{\beta}$).

Proof: Since $u_i \sim N(0, \sigma_u^2)$, the p.d.f. of u_i is given by

$$f_i(u_i) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_u^2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma_u^2} u_i^2} \quad \text{as } u_i \sim N(0, \sigma_u^2)$$

This joint probability distribution function of u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n is given by $f(u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n)$ and given the set of sample observations it is looked upon as a function of u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n .

parameters and assumed the probability density function of the parameters α and β are independent, then we get as usual

$$f(\alpha, \beta) = \pi(\alpha) \pi(\beta)$$

$$\pi(\alpha) \pi(\beta) \sigma_u = \frac{1}{\sigma_u} \left(\frac{1}{\sigma_u} \right)^n \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2\sigma_u^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \alpha - \beta X_i)^2 \right\}$$

$$\text{or } \log \pi(\alpha) \pi(\beta) \sigma_u = \frac{1}{2} \log 2\pi - \frac{n}{2} \log \sigma_u - \frac{1}{2\sigma_u^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \alpha - \beta X_i)^2$$

Taking Log on both sides we get,

$$\begin{aligned} \log l &= \frac{n}{2} \log 2\pi - \frac{n}{2} \log \sigma_u - \frac{1}{2\sigma_u^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \alpha - \beta X_i)^2 \\ &= \frac{n}{2} \log 2\pi - \frac{n}{2} \log \sigma_u - \frac{1}{2\sigma_u^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \alpha - \beta X_i)^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$(Y_i - \alpha - \beta X_i) = u_i \text{ or } u_i = Y_i - \alpha - \beta X_i \text{ or } \sum_{i=1}^n u_i = \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \alpha - \beta X_i)$$

M.L.E. of α and β can be obtained by maximizing $\log l$ through the choice of α and β . Maximization of $\log l$ through the choice of α and β is equivalent to minimization

of $\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \alpha - \beta X_i)^2$ through the choice of α and β .

Let us suppose that α^* is the MLE of α and β^* is the MLE of β . Then,

$$\beta^* = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \quad \alpha^* = \bar{Y} - \beta^* \bar{X} \quad \left[\text{Since } \beta = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \right]$$

$$\text{Since } \log l = \frac{n}{2} \log 2\pi - \frac{n}{2} \log \sigma_u - \frac{1}{2\sigma_u^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \alpha - \beta X_i)^2$$

Differentiating partially $\log l$ with respect to α & β we get,

$$\frac{\partial \log l}{\partial \alpha} = -\frac{1}{2\sigma_u^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \alpha - \beta X_i) (-1)$$

$$\frac{\partial \log l}{\partial \log \hat{\sigma}} = -\frac{1}{2\sigma_u^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \alpha - \beta X_i) (-X_i)$$

Equating these equations to zero and putting our mark on the parameters distinguishes them from least squares estimates.

we get

$$\alpha^* = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n 1} = \bar{y} \quad (1)$$

$$\beta^* = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2} \quad (2)$$

The first two equations are reduced to the least squares normal equations

$$\sum_{i=1}^n y_i = n\alpha^* + \beta^* \sum_{i=1}^n 1$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i = \alpha^* \sum_{i=1}^n x_i + \beta^* \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$$

Now solving the two normal equations we can get $\beta^* = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$ and $\alpha^* = \bar{y} - \beta^* \bar{x}$.

This proves that the MLE of α and β are the same as the least squares estimates. Hence they would also possess all the desirable properties.

When log L is maximised through the choice of α and β and α^* and β^* are the MLE of α and β , then,

$$\sum_{i=1}^n u_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \alpha^* - \beta^* x_i)^2 \quad \text{[} \alpha^* = \alpha \text{ and } \beta^* = \beta \text{]}$$

$$\text{Hence, } \sum_{i=1}^n u_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \alpha - \beta x_i)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 \quad \text{[} \bar{y} = \alpha + \beta \bar{x} \text{]}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n u_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2$$

So, the likelihood function maximised with respect to α and β is given by

$$\log L = \frac{n}{2} \log 2\pi - n \log \sigma_u - \frac{1}{2\sigma_u^2} \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2$$

In order to obtain the MLE of σ_u^2 , $\log L$ is to be maximised through the choice of σ_u and the first order condition of maximisation is given by (assuming σ_u^{2*} as the MLE of σ_u^2).

$$\frac{\partial \log L}{\partial \sigma_u} = \frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma_u} \left[\frac{n}{2} \log 2\pi - n \log \sigma_u - \frac{1}{2\sigma_u^2} \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 \right] = 0 = \frac{1}{\sigma_u} \left[-n + \frac{1}{\sigma_u^2} \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 \right] = 0$$

$$\text{or, } \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 / \sigma_u^2 = n \quad \text{or, } \sigma_u^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 / n = \sigma_u^{2*} \text{ (say)}$$

so $\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \alpha - \beta x_i)^2$ is the MLE of the variance of the disturbance term

denoted by σ_u^2 .

For maximisation, however, we require second order conditions which are not known here. But we should also check the second order conditions required for maximisation. This means that we have to show that $\frac{\partial^2 \ln L}{\partial \alpha^2} < 0$ and $\frac{\partial^2 \ln L}{\partial \beta^2} < 0$.

$$\frac{\partial^2 \ln L}{\partial \alpha^2} < 0$$

Thus we see that the MLE of σ_u^2 i.e. $\sigma_u^{2*} = \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 / n$ is not an unbiased estimator, but it is a consistent estimator.

$$E \left[\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 \right] = n E \left[\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 / (n-2) \right] = n \sigma_u^2$$

$$= E \left[\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 \cdot (n-2) \left(\frac{n-2}{n} \right) \right] = E \left[\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 / (n-2) \cdot \left(\frac{n-2}{n} \right) \right]$$

$$\sigma_u^2 = \frac{2}{n} \text{ since } E \left[\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 / (n-2) \right] = \sigma_u^2$$

$$E \left[\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 \right] = \sigma_u^2 \left(1 + \frac{2}{n} \right)$$

$$\text{Now } E \left[\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 / n \right] > \sigma_u^2 \text{ as } n > 2$$

This proves that the MLE of σ_u^2 i.e. $\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 / n$ is a consistent estimator of σ_u^2 .

Note: MLE of α and β i.e. α^* and β^* are unbiased estimators of α and β . The MLE of σ_u^2 i.e. $\sigma_u^{2*} = \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 / n$ is not an unbiased estimator rather it is a consistent estimator (consistently unbiased) of σ_u^2 .

2.12 The Sampling Distribution of the Least Squares Estimates

Since least squares estimators are linear combinations of independent normal variables, Y, Y_2, \dots, Y_n , $\hat{\alpha}$ and $\hat{\beta}$ must also be normally distributed with the following characteristics

of α and β are of course, the more closely related to their true values.

$$\text{var}(\alpha) = \frac{\sigma_u^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \quad \text{and} \quad \text{var}(\beta) = \frac{\sigma_u^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{\bar{x}^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \right)$$

$$\sigma_u^2 = \frac{1}{n-2} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 \quad \text{and} \quad \text{var}(\alpha) = \frac{\sigma_u^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$$

$$\hat{\beta} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \quad \text{and} \quad \text{var}(\hat{\beta}) = \frac{\sigma_u^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$$

Variances of the parameters are directly related to the variances of the disturbances. The following points should be noted carefully:

(i) Larger the value of σ_u^2 , the larger the variances of α and β . In other words, the greater the dispersion of the disturbance terms around the population regression line, the greater is the dispersion in the values of estimated regression parameters.

(ii) $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2$ is the denominator of the variance formula of both the estimators. This indicates that the more dispersed the values of the explanatory variables, i.e. larger $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2$, the smaller the variances of α and β . If $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2$ tends to zero, i.e. when $x_1 = x_2 = \dots = x_n = 0$, both variances would be infinitely large.

(iii) The variance of α is the smallest when $\bar{x} = 0$ or tends to zero. In particular,

$$\text{when } \bar{x} = 0, \quad \text{var}(\alpha) = \frac{\sigma_u^2}{n}$$

2.3 Confidence Intervals and Hypothesis Testing

It is highly essential to construct confidence intervals of the parameters in order to measure precision of α and β . We have all the information concerning the distribution of α and β in order to standardise them.

$$\text{Since } \alpha = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i - \beta \bar{x} \quad \text{and} \quad \beta = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$$

$$N(u) = \frac{\beta_1 - \beta}{sf(\beta)} = \frac{\beta_1 - \beta}{\sigma_u \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} + \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}{n \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}}} \quad (1)$$

where $sf(\beta) = \sqrt{\text{var}(\beta)}$ and $\sigma_u = \frac{\sigma}{sf(\beta)} = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{n} + \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}{n \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}}}$

Here $\text{var}(u) = \sigma_u^2 = \frac{\sigma^2}{n + \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}}$

$$sf(u) = \sqrt{\text{var}(u)} = \sigma_u \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} + \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}{n \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}} = \sigma_u \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 + n}{n \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}}$$

$$N = \frac{\bar{X}^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 + n\bar{X}^2}{n \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$$

$$= \frac{\left[\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2 + n\bar{X}^2 \right]}{n \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} = \frac{\left[\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - 2\bar{X} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i + n\bar{X}^2 + n\bar{X}^2 \right]}{n \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$$

$$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - 2n\bar{X}^2 + 2n\bar{X}^2}{n \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}{n \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$$

Here σ_u^2 represents the variance of the unobservable disturbances which is to be estimated. In particular σ_u^2 is not known and we substitute by its unbiased estimator

$$\hat{\sigma}_u^2 = \frac{1}{n-2} \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 \quad \text{if } E(e_i) = 0, \quad \text{then the standard normal variate,}$$

or t will follow a distribution with $(n-2)$ degrees of freedom

$$\text{in case of } \alpha = \frac{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i}{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i} = \frac{\sigma_u \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n z_i \right)}{\sigma_u \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n z_i \right)}$$

When σ_u^2 is not known and n is replaced by $\hat{\sigma}_u^2 = \frac{1}{n-2} \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2$ the unbiased estimator of σ_u^2 then we have

$$t_{n-2} = \frac{\alpha - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i / \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i}{\hat{\sigma}_u \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}} \quad \text{with d.f.} = (n-2)$$

Now by rearranging in terms of t expression we have

$$\alpha - \alpha = t_{n-2} \hat{\sigma}_u \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \quad \text{or} \quad \alpha \pm t_{n-2} \hat{\sigma}_u \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$$

Therefore 95% confidence limits for α are

$$\alpha \pm t_{0.025, n-2} \hat{\sigma}_u \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$$

Similarly, 99% confidence limits for α are

$$\alpha \pm t_{0.005, n-2} \hat{\sigma}_u \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$$

[The values of $t_{0.025, n-2}$ and $t_{0.005, n-2}$ corresponding to $(n-2)$ d.f. can be obtained from the table, given at the end of the book.]

In the same way for testing β we have

$$t = \frac{\hat{\beta} - \beta_0}{\sigma_{\hat{\beta}}} = \frac{\hat{\beta} - \beta_0}{\sigma_y \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}}$$

when σ_y is not known then it is replaced by its unbiased estimator s_y then we have

$$t = \frac{\hat{\beta} - \beta_0}{s_y \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}} \quad \text{with d.f.} = n - 2 \quad \text{Now rearranging we may get}$$

$$\hat{\beta} - \beta_0 \pm t_{\alpha/2} \cdot \frac{s_y}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}} \quad \text{or} \quad \hat{\beta} - \beta_0 \pm t_{\alpha/2} \cdot \frac{\sigma_y}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}}$$

Therefore 95% confidence limits for β would be

$$\hat{\beta} \pm t_{0.025, n-2} \cdot \frac{s_y}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}}$$

and 99% confidence limits for β would be

$$\hat{\beta} \pm t_{0.005, n-2} \cdot \frac{s_y}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}}$$

Confidence interval for σ_y^2 :

Under the normality assumption, the variable $\chi^2 = (n-2) \frac{\sigma_y^2}{\sigma_y^2}$ follows a χ^2 distribution with d.f. = $(n-2)$.

Therefore, we can use $\chi_{\alpha/2}^2$ to establish a confidence interval for σ_y^2

$$P \left[\chi_{1-\frac{\alpha}{2}}^2 \leq \chi_{n-2}^2 \leq \chi_{\frac{\alpha}{2}}^2 \right] = 1 - \alpha$$

$$\text{or, } P \left[\chi_{1-\frac{\alpha}{2}}^2 \leq (n-2) \frac{\sigma_y^2}{\sigma_y^2} \leq \chi_{\frac{\alpha}{2}}^2 \right] = 1 - \alpha$$

where μ_0 is known.

Let \bar{y} be the sample mean of the sample of size n .

Let s^2 be the sample variance of the sample of size n .

Let t be the test statistic defined as follows:

where t is the test statistic defined as follows:

where t is the test statistic defined as follows:

where t is the test statistic defined as follows:

where t is the test statistic defined as follows:

where t is the test statistic defined as follows:

where t is the test statistic defined as follows:

where t is the test statistic defined as follows:

$$t = \frac{\bar{y} - \mu_0}{s/\sqrt{n}} = \frac{\bar{y} - \mu_0}{\sqrt{\frac{s^2}{n}}}$$

which follows a t -distribution with $df = n - 2$.

At the 5% level of significance the null hypothesis will be rejected for the given sample if $|t| > t_{0.025, n-2}$ and will be accepted otherwise.

Similarly at 1% level of significance the null hypothesis will be rejected for the given sample if $|t| > t_{0.005, n-2}$ and will be accepted otherwise (i.e. $|t| < t_{0.005, n-2}$). The confidence interval for μ (acceptance region in a two-tailed test) at 5% and 1% levels of significance with $df = n - 2$ degrees of freedom will be given by:

$$t_{0.025, n-2} \cdot SE(\bar{y}) < \bar{y} < +t_{0.025, n-2} \cdot SE(\bar{y})$$

$$\text{and } t_{0.005, n-2} \cdot SE(\bar{y}) < \bar{y} < +t_{0.005, n-2} \cdot SE(\bar{y})$$

where $SE(\bar{y}) = \frac{\sigma_y}{\sqrt{n}}$ (σ_y is not known and replaced by s_y)

2.13.1. The Exact Level of Significance: The p -value

We know that the significance level α in a hypothesis testing problem is the probability of making a Type-I error, i.e. α is the probability of rejecting the null

hypothesis is rejected if $t_{n-2} \geq t_{\alpha/2, n-2}$ or $t_{n-2} \leq -t_{\alpha/2, n-2}$. In the main regression analysis, we use the probability α (say 0.05) and $\alpha/2$ (say 0.025) to find the critical values of the appropriate t -distribution. For example, if $n = 15$, then $n - 2 = 13$ and the t -value for the one-tailed test for slope is $t_{0.025, 13} = 2.160$. If the calculated t -value is the integer or not, set back to the previous integer then rounded and other wise rounded down to the value of the integer being the upper limit for the observed test statistic gets.

Now we can ask a natural question: what is the smallest value of t (significance level) at which the null hypothesis gets rejected? The answer is p -value or probability value associated with the observed data set.

Since the p -value is computed, we can make use of it since from now on we can compare the p -value with α .

Usually if the p -value $\leq \alpha$ then reject H_0 , otherwise accept H_0 .

Let us consider an example which is given in the regression analysis output showing the impact of education on wages. y is a sample mean of n observations where y = wages, x = Education years (showing the statistical data set is given here).

The estimated regression results are given below.

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{y} &= \alpha + \beta x \\ \Rightarrow \hat{y} &= -10.44 + 0.7240x \\ SE &= (1.97)^{-1} (0.0700), r^2 = 0.9065 \end{aligned}$$

Suppose we like to test the null hypothesis $H_0: \beta = 0.5$ against the alternative hypothesis $H_1: \beta \neq 0.5$. The appropriate test statistic under H_0 is t_{n-2} which is

$$\begin{aligned} t_{n-2} &= \frac{\hat{\beta} - \beta}{SE(\hat{\beta})} = \frac{0.7240 - 0.5}{0.0700} = 3.2 \\ t_{n-2} \text{ (observed)} &= 3.2 \end{aligned}$$

Now on the basis of the given sample $H_0: \beta = 0.5$ will be rejected at 10% level of significance when $(H_1: \beta \neq 0.5)$ if t_{n-2} (observed) $> t_{\alpha/2, n-2}$ Table

$$\text{Here } n = 13, \text{ if } \alpha = 0.05, t_{\alpha/2, n-2} = t_{0.025, 11} = 2.201$$

$$\text{and if } \alpha = 0.01, t_{\alpha/2, n-2} = t_{0.005, 11} = 3.106$$

So, $H_0: \beta = 0.5$ is rejected both at 5% and 1% levels of significance as t_{n-2} (observed) $> 3.2 > 2.201$ and 3.106.

Now on the basis of p -value the null hypothesis will be rejected for the given sample if $p \leq \alpha$ and will be accepted otherwise.

Here given the null hypothesis, that the true coefficient of education $\beta = 0.5$, we obtain a t -value of 3.2. Now what is the p -value of obtaining a t -value of as much as or greater than 3.2?

From the t -table given in Appendix Table IX we see that for $n = 11$ if the probability of obtaining such t -value must be smaller than 0.005 (one tail) or 0.01 (two tail).

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \beta_1) = \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \beta_1) = \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \beta_1) = \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \beta_1)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \beta_1) = \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \beta_1) = \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \beta_1) = \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \beta_1)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \beta_1) = \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \beta_1) = \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \beta_1) = \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \beta_1)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \beta_1) = \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \beta_1) = \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \beta_1) = \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \beta_1)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \beta_1) = \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \beta_1) = \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \beta_1) = \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \beta_1)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \beta_1) = \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \beta_1) = \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \beta_1) = \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \beta_1)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \beta_1) = \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \beta_1) = \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \beta_1) = \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \beta_1)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \beta_1) = \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \beta_1) = \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \beta_1) = \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \beta_1)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \beta_1) = \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \beta_1) = \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \beta_1) = \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \beta_1)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \beta_1) = \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \beta_1) = \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \beta_1) = \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \beta_1)$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Total sum of squares} = \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{Explained sum} \\ \text{of squares} \end{array} \right] + \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{Unexplained} \\ \text{sum of squares} \end{array} \right] \text{ or } \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{Residual sum} \\ \text{of squares} \end{array} \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{TSS} = \text{ESS} + \text{RSS}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2 \text{ represents the total sum of squared deviations from } \bar{Y} \text{ which we may}$$

take as a measure of the total variations in Y

Thus total variations can be decomposed into two parts

$$(i) \beta^2 \left[\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2 \right] = \beta^2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 \Rightarrow \text{the estimated effect of change in } X \text{ on the}$$

variations in Y (Explained sum of squares).

The above expression can be simplified by the relation

$\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y}) = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i - \bar{x} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i - \bar{y} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i + n \bar{x} \bar{y}$

where $R^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i - \bar{x} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i - \bar{y} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i + n \bar{x} \bar{y}}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - n \bar{x}^2}$

$$R^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i - \bar{x} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i - \bar{y} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i + n \bar{x} \bar{y}}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - n \bar{x}^2}$$

Since $\text{var}(Y) = \text{var}(X) = \text{var}(r)$

and $0 \leq \text{var}(r) \leq \text{var}(Y)$

or $r = \frac{\text{var}(r)}{\text{var}(Y)} \leq 1$ or $0 \leq R^2 \leq 1$

$R^2 = 0$ when $\text{var}(r) = 0$ i.e. $\sum_{i=1}^n r_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n r_i^2$

and $R^2 = 1$ when $\text{var}(Y) = \text{var}(r)$ i.e. $\sum_{i=1}^n r_i^2 = 0$

It should be noted that, this R^2 is equal to the square of the simple correlation coefficient between X and Y .

By definition simple correlation coefficient (product moment) is given by

$$r_{XY} = r = \frac{\text{cov}(X, Y)}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2}}$$

$$r = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2}}$$

$$\text{Since } \beta = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \text{ and } R^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2}$$

$$R^2 = \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2} \right) \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \right) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2}} \quad (1)$$

$$R = r'$$

Since $0 \leq R^2 \leq 1$

$$f^* \in J^* \subset f$$

$$11 \leq r \leq 14$$

Example 2.4. Find the value of R^2 from the following information and coefficient

$$\sum_{i=1}^n x_i = 1347.60, \quad \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 = 604.80, \quad \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^3 = 19837.80, \quad \text{where } x_i = x - \bar{x} \text{ and } \bar{x} = 1.7127.$$

Solution Since $R^2 = \frac{\beta^2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$ where $\beta = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$

$$\beta^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} = \left(\frac{3347.61}{614.80} \right)^2 = (5.44)^2 = 29.69$$

$$N_{JW} R^2 = \frac{\hat{\beta}^2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n v_i} = \frac{30.69 \cdot 604.80}{19837} = \frac{18561.12}{19837} = 0.935$$

$$p^2 = 0.935$$

This suggests that 93.6 percent of the changes in the sample observations of Y can be attributed to the variations of the fitted value of Y i.e. \hat{Y} or we say that our regression line fits the given data well.

Thus R^2 measures the proportion of variations in the dependent variable that is explained by the independent variables.

Example 2.5. A sample of 20 observations corresponding to the regression model $Y_i = \alpha + \beta X_i + u_i$ where u_i is normally distributed with mean zero and unknown variance σ_u^2 gives the following data.

$$\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i = 71.9, \quad \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y}) = 0, \quad \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - \bar{1})(y_i - \bar{y}) = 106.4$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n x_i = 186.2, \quad \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y}) = 71.9 - 20$$

Repeat the usual regression results.

Solution. On the basis of the given information we have to fit a linear relation between Y (dependent variable) and X (explanatory variable).

i) Estimation of α and β

$$\text{We know that, } \beta = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i - \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$

$$\beta = \frac{106.4}{215.4} = 0.494$$

$$\text{and } \alpha = \bar{y} - \beta \bar{x} \text{ where } \bar{y} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n y_i}{n} = \frac{21.9}{20} = 1.095 \text{ and } \bar{x} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i}{n} = \frac{186.2}{20} = 9.31$$

$$= 1.095 - 0.494 \times 9.31$$

$$= 0.05 - 4.60 = -3.505$$

Thus we have, $\alpha = -3.505$ and $\beta = 0.494$ and our estimated regression line is

$$\hat{Y} = \alpha + \beta X \Rightarrow Y = -3.505 + 0.494X$$

ii) Estimation of variances

$$\text{Since we know that, } \text{var}(\alpha) = \sigma_u^2 \left[\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \right] \text{ and } \text{var}(\beta) = \frac{\sigma_u^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$$

Here we see that σ_u^2 is not known and hence we replace it by its unbiased estimator

$$\hat{\sigma}_u^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2}{n-2}$$

$$\text{Thus we have, } \text{var}(\alpha) = \hat{\sigma}_u^2 \left[\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \right] \text{ and } \text{var}(\beta) = \frac{\hat{\sigma}_u^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$$

Again we know that $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i = \sum_{i=1}^n y_i = \sum_{i=1}^n z_i$

Since $\sum_{i=1}^n z_i = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i + \sum_{i=1}^n y_i$ where $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i = \sum_{i=1}^n y_i = 215.4$ and $\sum_{i=1}^n z_i = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i + \sum_{i=1}^n y_i$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n z_i = 86.9 + 194.04 = 280.94$$

$$\text{Now } \sigma_u^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2}{(n-2)} = \frac{34.34}{20-2} = \frac{34.34}{18} = 1.908$$

$$\text{Now } \text{var}(\hat{\alpha}) = \sigma_u^2 \left[\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}{n \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2} \right] = \frac{1.908}{20 \times 215.4} = 0.0089$$

$$\left[\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2 = 215.4 \text{ or } \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - n\bar{x}^2 = 215.4 \right]$$

$$\text{or, } \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 = 215.4 + n\bar{x}^2 = 215.4 + 20 \times 9.37^2$$

$$= 215.4 + 1733.522 = 1948.922$$

$$\therefore \text{var}(\hat{\alpha}) = 0.0089$$

$$\text{Similarly, } \text{var}(\hat{\beta}) = \frac{\sigma_u^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} = \frac{1.908}{215.4} = 0.0089$$

$$\text{Now, } SE(\hat{\alpha}) = \sqrt{\text{var}(\hat{\alpha})} = \sqrt{0.0089} = 0.094$$

$$SE(\hat{\beta}) = \sqrt{\text{var}(\hat{\beta})} = \sqrt{0.0089} = 0.094$$

(i) Construction of confidence intervals

Now we like to set up a confidence interval for α and β at (a) $P = 0.95$ (i.e. 5% level of significance) and (b) $P = 0.99$ (i.e. 1% level of significance).

In other words, we like to find the value of t that cuts off (a) 0.025 and (b) 0.005 of the area at the tail end of the distribution on both sides. From table value $t_{0.025, (n-2)} = t_{0.025, 18} = 2.101$ and $t_{0.005, (n-2)} = t_{0.005, 18} = 2.878$.

Therefore 95% confidence interval for α are $\hat{\alpha} \pm t_{0.025, (n-2)} SE(\hat{\alpha})$ i.e., $P(\hat{\alpha} - t_{0.025, (n-2)} SE(\hat{\alpha}) \leq \alpha \leq \hat{\alpha} + t_{0.025, (n-2)} SE(\hat{\alpha})) = 0.95$ and 99% confidence interval for α would be $\hat{\alpha} \pm t_{0.005, (n-2)} SE(\hat{\alpha})$.

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \text{The 95\% confidence interval for } \beta_1 \text{ would be } \pm 1.96 \times \text{SE}(\beta_1) \\
 & \text{or } 0.44 \pm 1.96 \times 0.094 \\
 & \text{or } 0.44 \pm 0.184
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus 95% confidence interval for β_1 would be 0.44 ± 0.184

$$\text{or } 0.44 \pm 0.184$$

$$\text{or } 0.44 \pm 0.184$$

$$\text{where } \beta_1 = 0.44$$

$$t_{0.025, 18} = 2.101$$

$$\text{SE}(\beta_1) = 0.094$$

Hypothesis testing Suppose we like to test the null hypothesis $H_0: \beta_1 = 0$ against the alternative hypothesis $H_1: \beta_1 \neq 0$. Now on the basis of the p -value, $H_0: \beta_1 = 0$ is rejected at 5% level of significance if

$$t_{\text{observed}} > t_{0.025, (n-2)} \text{ table value}$$

and not be accepted otherwise

$$\text{Here } t_{\text{obs}} = \frac{\beta_1}{\text{SE}(\beta_1)} = \frac{0.44}{0.094} = 4.68 \text{ (where } n = 20)$$

Thus we see that $t_{\text{obs}} = 4.68 > t_{0.025, 18} = 2.101$ and hence $H_0: \beta_1 = 0$ is rejected (alternatively $H_1: \beta_1 \neq 0$ is accepted) at 5% level of significance. So the hypothesis of no relationship between X and Y is to be rejected at 5% level of significance. Similarly it can be tested for 1% level of significance.

2.5 Results of Regression Analysis

The results of regression analysis are generally presented in a conventional format. It is not sufficient merely to report the estimates of a and b . In practice we often report regression coefficients together with their standard errors and the value of R^2 has become customary to present the estimated equation with standard errors placed in parentheses below the estimated parameter values. These results are supplemented by R^2 , the value of which is written on right hand side of the estimated regression equation.

In terms of our earlier example (Example 2.5) the estimated regression results can be written as

$$\begin{aligned}
 Y &= 3.505 + 0.44X \quad R^2 = 0.6048 \\
 \text{SE} &= (0.929) (0.094)
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Error} = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \alpha - \beta x_i)^2$$

$$\text{Min } E = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \alpha - \beta x_i)^2$$

This suggests that the estimate of α is the value of α that minimizes the error. The estimate of β is the value of β that minimizes the error. The given data constitute a random sample of the population.

Now, to estimate the parameters of the regression line, we use the method of least squares. This way of presentation makes the testing of hypotheses easier to understand.

$$\hat{y} = 3.505 + 0.494x$$

$$\text{where } \alpha = 3.505, \beta = 0.494$$

$$\frac{\alpha}{SE(\alpha)} = 3.505, \quad \frac{\beta}{SE(\beta)} = 0.494$$

Example 2.6. Suppose that Mr. X estimates a consumption function and obtains the results

$$\hat{C} = 5 + 0.8Y_d, \quad n = 19$$

$$t\text{-ratios} = (3.1) (18.7), \quad R^2 = 0.99$$

C is consumption, Y_d is disposable income. The numbers in parentheses are t -ratios.

(a) Test the significance of Y_d statistically using t -ratios.

(b) Determine the estimated standard derivations of the parameter estimators.

(c) Construct a 95 percent confidence interval for the coefficient of Y_d .

Solution: It is a formal consumption function of the Keynesian type: $C = a + bY_d$, where a = autonomous part of consumption and b = Marginal propensity to consume. By assumption in the existing theory $a > 0, 0 < b < 1$. The estimated relation/regression results are given here as

$$\hat{C} = 5 + 0.8Y_d, \quad n = 19$$

$$t\text{-ratios} = (3.1) (18.7), \quad R^2 = 0.99$$

This shows that $\hat{a} = 5, \hat{b} = 0.81$,

$$\frac{\hat{a}}{SE(\hat{a})} = 3.1 \text{ (} t\text{-ratio) and } \frac{\hat{b}}{SE(\hat{b})} = 18.7 \text{ (} t\text{-ratio)}$$

n = no. of data points (sample size = 19)

R^2 = Square of multiple correlation coefficient

$$= \frac{ESS}{TSS} = \frac{\text{Explained variation in } C}{\text{Total variation}} = \frac{\text{var}(\hat{C})}{\text{var}(C)}$$

Here $P = 0.05$

This means that the period of the variations in sample observations is attributed to the variations of the fixed value of $t = 1$. Thus we say the regression line fits the given data well. That of 100% variation in consumption is explained by the variation in consumption.

We have to test the null hypothesis $H_0: \beta = 0$ (no relation between t and c) against the alternative hypothesis $H_1: \beta \neq 0$.

The appropriate test statistic under $H_0: \beta = 0$ would be

$t = \frac{\hat{\beta}}{SE(\hat{\beta})}$ which follows a t -distribution with $(n - 2)$ degrees of freedom.

$$t = \frac{\hat{\beta}}{SE(\hat{\beta})} = \frac{18.7}{0.81} = 23.1$$

Now at 5% level of significance $H_0: \beta = 0$ (no relation between t and c)

will be accepted if $|t| < 2.10$ and will be rejected otherwise.

From table value we get

$$t_{0.05, 18} = 2.10$$

($n = 19$ given)

Thus we see that observed $t = \frac{\hat{\beta}}{SE(\hat{\beta})} = 23.1$ does not lie in the interval -2.10 and 2.10 and hence the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative is accepted. This means that there exists a relation between consumption (c) and disposable income (t). Hence the relation is statistically significant.

(b. We have to find $SE(a)$ and $SE(b)$

Since for $a, t = \frac{a}{SE(a)} = 3.1$ (given)

$$\text{and } a = 15, \quad 3.1 = \frac{15}{SE(a)} \quad \text{or } SE(a) = \frac{15}{3.1} = 4.8387$$

Similarly, for $b, t = \frac{b}{SE(b)} = 18.7$ (given)

and $b = 0.81$

$$\text{or } 18.7 = \frac{0.81}{SE(b)} \quad \text{or } SE(b) = \frac{0.81}{18.7} = 0.0433$$

$$\text{Here } n = \sum_{i=1}^n 1 = n = \sum_{i=1}^n 1 = n = \frac{M}{n} = 6$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n x_i = 1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + 5 = 15$$

$$\text{and } \sum_{i=1}^n y_i = 3.6 + 3.7 + 3.8 + 3.9 + 4.0 = 19$$

∴ the OLS estimators of α and β are given by $\hat{\alpha}$ and $\hat{\beta}$ where

$$\hat{\alpha} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n y_i}{n} - \hat{\beta} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i}{n} = \frac{19}{6} - 0.75$$

$$\text{and } \hat{\alpha} = \hat{\beta} \mu_x = 0.75 \times 3 = 2.25 \quad \therefore \hat{\alpha} = 2.25 - 0.75 = 1.5$$

$$\hat{\alpha} = 1.5 \text{ and } \hat{\beta} = 0.75$$

The estimated regression line equation becomes

$\hat{y} = \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}x$ or $\hat{y} = 1.5 + 0.75x$. This equation is now used to find the values \hat{y} corresponding to different values of x . The values of \hat{y} are given in the above table showing calculations for regression.

Here the regression coefficient $\hat{\beta} = 0.75$ measures the marginal product of x in \hat{y} . The intercept $\hat{\alpha} = 1.5$ means that output will be 1.5 units when labour hours of work is zero.

(iii) We have to find $\text{var}(\hat{\alpha})$, $\text{var}(\hat{\beta})$, $SE(\hat{\alpha})$ and $SE(\hat{\beta})$.

$$\text{Since we know that } \text{var}(\hat{\alpha}) = \sigma_u^2 \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \quad \text{and} \quad \text{var}(\hat{\beta}) = \sigma_u^2 \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$$

Since σ_u^2 is unknown it is replaced by its unbiased estimator

$$\sigma_u^2 = \frac{1}{n-2} \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 = \frac{1.46}{4} = \frac{4.6}{8} = 1.0312$$

$$\text{Now } \text{var}(\hat{\alpha}) = \frac{\sigma_u^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} = \frac{1.0312}{19} = \frac{1.0312}{19} = 0.0543$$

$$\text{and } SE(\hat{\alpha}) = \sqrt{\text{var}(\hat{\alpha})} = \sqrt{0.0543} = 0.233$$

$$SSR = \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{y}_i^2 = (3.6 + 0.75 \times 1)^2 + \dots + (3.6 + 0.75 \times 28)^2$$

$$= 10.75^2 + \dots + 24.75^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{y}_i^2 = ESS \quad \text{[Sum of squares of fitted values]}$$

$$ESS = \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{y}_i^2 = (10.75)^2 + \dots + (24.75)^2 = 30.40 \quad \text{[Sum of squares of fitted values (taken from last column of calculation table)]}$$

(taken from last column of calculation table)

$$MSR = \frac{ESS}{n-2} = \frac{30.40}{28-2} = \frac{30.40}{26} = 1.1692$$

(iv) We have to find out the value of the coefficient of determination R^2 .

$$\text{Since we know that } R^2 = \frac{ESS}{TSS} = \frac{\beta^2 \sum x_i^2}{\sum y_i^2} \quad \left(\text{Since } \sum y_i^2 = \beta^2 \sum x_i^2 + \sum e_i^2 \right. \\ \left. \text{i.e., } TSS = ESS + RSS \right)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 &= \beta^2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 \\ &= (0.75)^2 \times 28 + 14.65 = 15.75 + 14.65 = 30.40 \end{aligned}$$

$$R^2 = \frac{\beta^2 \sum x_i^2}{\sum y_i^2} = \frac{(0.75)^2 \times 28}{30.40} = \frac{15.75}{30.40} = 0.51$$

This suggests that 51 percent of the variations in the sample observations of y can be attributed to the variations of the fitted value of y i.e. \hat{y} . Here we see that our regression line fits the given data moderately (not very well).

From the above results we can write our regression results as follows:

$$\hat{y} = 3.6 + 0.75 X, R^2 = 0.51$$

(2.090, (0.256) [SE values in brackets]

$$\text{Alternatively, } \hat{y} = 3.6 + 0.75 X, R^2 = 0.51$$

(1.7224) (2.930) [t values in brackets]

(v) 95% confidence intervals of α , β and σ_u^2

(a) 95% confidence interval for α is given by,

$$P[\hat{\alpha} - t_{0.025, n-2} SE(\hat{\alpha}) \leq \alpha \leq \hat{\alpha} + t_{0.025, n-2} SE(\hat{\alpha})] = 0.95$$

c. 95% confidence limits for σ^2 are

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{s^2}{n} \pm t_{\alpha/2, n-2} \cdot \frac{s^2}{n}$$

$$\text{or } \sigma^2 = \frac{1.44}{10} \pm 2.101 \cdot \frac{1.44}{10}$$

$$\text{or } \sigma^2 = 0.144 \pm 0.3024$$

$$\text{or } 0.144 \pm 0.3024$$

∴ 95% confidence limits for σ^2 are 0.144 and 0.4464

d. 95% confidence interval for β is given by

$$P(\hat{\beta} \pm t_{\alpha/2, n-2} \cdot SE(\hat{\beta}) < \beta < \hat{\beta} + t_{\alpha/2, n-2} \cdot SE(\hat{\beta})) = 0.95$$

e. 95% confidence limits of β are

$$\hat{\beta} \pm t_{\alpha/2, n-2} \cdot SE(\hat{\beta})$$

$$\text{or } 0.75 \pm 2.101 \cdot 0.144$$

$$\text{or } 0.75 \pm 0.3024$$

$$\text{or } 0.75 \pm 0.3024$$

$$\text{or } 0.4476 \text{ and } 1.0524$$

∴ 95% confidence limits of β are 0.4476 and 1.0524

f. Since we know that 1.00 (1 - α)% confidence interval for σ_u^2 is given by

$$P\left\{ (n-2) \frac{s^2}{\chi^2_{\alpha/2, n-2}} \leq \sigma_u^2 \leq (n-2) \frac{s^2}{\chi^2_{1-\alpha/2, n-2}} \right\} = 1 - \alpha$$

Here $n = 10$, $\alpha = 0.05$, $\sigma_u^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 / (n-2) = 1.44/8 = 0.18$, $\chi^2_{\alpha/2, n-2} = \chi^2_{0.025, 8} = 15.507$ (Table value)

and $\chi^2_{1-\alpha/2, n-2} = \chi^2_{0.975, 8} = 2.180$ (Table value)

∴ 95% confidence interval for σ_u^2 would be

$$P\left\{ 8 \cdot \frac{1.44}{15.507} \leq \sigma_u^2 \leq 8 \cdot \frac{1.44}{2.180} \right\} = 0.95$$

$$\text{or } P(0.74 < \sigma_u^2 < 5.22) = 0.95$$

∴ 95% confidence limits of σ_u^2 are 0.74 and 5.22

iv. To test the null hypothesis $H_0: \beta = 1.35$ against the alternative hypothesis

$H_1: \beta \neq 1.35$ the appropriate test statistic would be, $t = \frac{\hat{\beta} - \beta}{SE(\hat{\beta})}$

Now on the basis of the sample data $H_0: \beta = 1.35$ will be rejected at 5% level of significance if

$$|t_{n-2}| = \frac{\hat{\beta} - \beta}{SE(\hat{\beta})} (\text{observed}) > t_{0.025, n-2} \text{ (Table value)}$$

and will be accepted otherwise

$$\text{Here } \frac{\hat{\beta} - \beta}{SE(\hat{\beta})} = \frac{0.75 - 1.35}{0.256} = -2.343$$

$$-2.343 \text{ and } t_{0.025, 10} = 2.228$$

From the table value we get $t_{0.025, 10} = 2.228$.

Thus $-2.343 < -2.228$. This means that H_0 is rejected at 5% level of significance.

(b) The null hypothesis $H_0: \beta = 1.35$ will be rejected against the alternative $H_1: \beta \neq 1.35$ at 100% level of significance if for the given sample

$$t_{n-2} \text{ (observed)} = \frac{\hat{\beta} - \beta}{SE(\hat{\beta})} > t_{\alpha/2, n-2} \text{ (table value)}$$

and will be accepted otherwise. Here $\alpha = 0.05$, $n = 11$

$$\text{and } t_{n-2} \text{ (observed)} = \frac{\hat{\beta} - \beta}{SE(\hat{\beta})} = -2.343, \quad t_{0.025, 10} = 2.228$$

So $H_0: \beta = 1.35$ is accepted (hence is significant) at 5% level of significance.

(c) The null hypothesis, $H_0: \beta = 1.35$ will be rejected against the alternative $H_1: \beta \neq 1.35$ for the given sample at 100% level of significance if

$$t_{n-2} \text{ (observed)} = \frac{\hat{\beta} - \beta}{SE(\hat{\beta})} > t_{\alpha/2, n-2} \text{ (table value)}$$

and will be accepted otherwise.

$$\text{Here, } t_{n-2} \text{ (observed)} = \frac{\hat{\beta} - \beta}{SE(\hat{\beta})} = \frac{0.75 - 1.35}{0.256} = -2.343$$

$$t_{0.025, 10} = 2.228 \quad \text{Here } \alpha = 0.05, n = 11$$

This clearly shows that the null hypothesis $H_0: \beta = 1.35$ is rejected (significant) at 5% level of significance.

2.16. Analysis of Variance for the Simple Linear Regression Model

Yet another item that is often presented in connection with the simple linear regression model is the analysis of variance. This is the breakdown of the total sum of squares (TSS) into explained sum of squares (ESS) and the residual sum of squares (RSS). The purpose of presenting the table is to test the significance of the explained sum of squares. In this case this amounts to testing the significance of β .

In regression analysis, we minimise the square deviations from mean and it has been proved (see Section 2.14) that

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{Y}_i)^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y})^2 \quad \text{or} \quad \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{e}_i^2$$

That is, Total variation = Explained variation + Unexplained variation or Residual variation
or, TSS = ESS + RSS with degrees of freedom $n - 1 = (n - K) + (n - K)$ where
 n = total number of observations (given) and
 K = number of parameters to be estimated.

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 - \frac{1}{n} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n y_i \right)^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 - \frac{1}{n} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n y_i \right)^2$$

Now

if

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 - \frac{1}{n} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n y_i \right)^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 - \frac{1}{n} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n y_i \right)^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 - \frac{1}{n} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n y_i \right)^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 - \frac{1}{n} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n y_i \right)^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 - \frac{1}{n} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n y_i \right)^2$$

and hence we have

$$\sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2$$

$$= \text{TSS} - \text{ESS} - \text{RSS}$$

with $\text{df} = n - 1$ (in A) Here $A = 1$ as there are two parameters α and β

Thus we see that total variations are split into explained by explanatory variable and unexplained (error term) variations against between and within variations in the case of analysis of variance procedure. This suggests that we are suitable in analysis of variance type of table for the regression analysis also in order to get the full significance of the regression results.

ANOVA TABLE

Source of variation	Sum of squares	Degrees of freedom	Mean sum of squares	Observed	Tabulated
				$F = \frac{\text{MSE}}{\text{MSR}}$	
Explained between	$\text{ESS} = \beta \sum x_i^2$	K	$\frac{\text{ESS}}{K} = \text{MSR}$	with $n - K$ d.f. in denominator	
Residual within	$\text{RSS} = \sum y_i^2 - \frac{1}{n} \left(\sum y_i \right)^2$	$n - K$	$\frac{\text{RSS}}{n - K} = \text{MSE}$		
Total	$\text{TSS} = \sum y_i^2$	n			

Here $K = 2$ as the model is a two variable regression model and two parameters are involved.

To test the null hypothesis $H_0: \beta = 0$ against $H_1: \beta \neq 0$, we use the explanatory variable x_i to predict y_i . The predicted value \hat{y}_i is obtained by computing $\hat{y}_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i$. The sum of squares of explained variation is $\sum (\hat{y}_i - \bar{y})^2$. In testing H_0 , $\beta = 0$ against $H_1: \beta \neq 0$, we may use the test statistic,

$$F^* = \frac{MSR}{MSE} = \frac{\beta^2 \sum x_i^2 / (R-1)}{\sum e_i^2 / (n-R)} \quad \text{with } df = (R-1, n-R)$$

Now we have to compare F^* with the tabular value of F at $\alpha\%$ level of significance. If $F^* > F_{\alpha}$, we reject the null hypothesis and accept H_1 . Otherwise, we accept H_0 and reject H_1 .

It should be noted that

$$F^* = \frac{MSR}{MSE} = \frac{\beta^2 \sum x_i^2 / (R-1)}{\sum e_i^2 / (n-R)}$$

$$\text{Now } \frac{\beta^2 \sum x_i^2}{\sum e_i^2} = \frac{\sum x_i^2}{\sum y_i^2} \cdot \frac{\sum y_i^2}{\sum e_i^2} = 1 - \frac{\sum e_i^2}{\sum y_i^2}$$

$$\text{But } \frac{\sum e_i^2}{\sum y_i^2} = 1 - R^2 \quad \text{or, } \sum e_i^2 = (1 - R^2) \sum y_i^2$$

$$\text{Therefore, } F^* = \frac{(n-2) \left\{ \frac{\beta^2 \sum x_i^2}{\sum y_i^2} \right\}}{1 - R^2} = \frac{(n-2) R^2}{1 - R^2}$$

which on generalisation becomes $\frac{R^2 \cdot (K-1)}{(1-R^2) \cdot (n-K)}$ where we have K parameters.

Furthermore, we know that

$$r = \frac{\hat{\beta}}{SE(\hat{\beta})} = \frac{\beta}{\sqrt{\text{var}(\hat{\beta})}} \quad \text{But } \text{var}(\hat{\beta}) = \frac{\sigma_e^2}{\sum x_i^2} = \frac{\sum e_i^2 / (n-2)}{\sum x_i^2}$$

$$r^2 = \frac{\hat{\beta}^2}{\text{var}(\hat{\beta})} = \frac{\beta^2}{\left\{ \sum e_i^2 / (n-2) \right\} \left(\frac{1}{\sum x_i^2} \right)} \quad \text{or, } r^2 = \frac{\beta^2 \sum x_i^2}{\sum e_i^2 / (n-2)} = F^*$$

The x and y data and x and y series are formally equivalent. The relation between y_{it} and x_{it} is

Example 2.8.1 Let us consider the following data to construct the model of car mileage for a simple regression model $y_i = \alpha + \beta x_i + u_i$

$$\text{given } \sum_{i=1}^n y_i = 186.4 \quad \sum_{i=1}^n x_i = 215.4 \quad \bar{y} = 186.4 / 26 = 7.169$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n 1 = 26 \quad \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x}) = 215.4 - 26 \times 8.29 = 0$$

Solution: See Example 2.3)

The OLS estimators of α and β can be obtained as follows

$$\hat{\beta} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2} = \frac{186.4}{215.4} = 0.494$$

$$\text{and } \hat{\alpha} = \bar{y} - \hat{\beta} \bar{x}$$

$$= 0.95 = 0.494 \times 8.31 = 0.95 \quad 460 = 3.505$$

$$\text{where } \bar{y} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n y_i}{n} = \frac{186.4}{26} = 7.169 \quad \text{and } \bar{x} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i}{n} = \frac{215.4}{26} = 8.29$$

The estimated regression results are

$$\hat{y} = 3.505 + 0.494 x \quad R^2 = 0.6048$$

t-ratios (3.772) (5.255) where $\alpha = 3.505$, $\beta = 0.494$

$$SE(\hat{\alpha}) = 0.929 \quad SE(\hat{\beta}) = 0.094 \quad \frac{\hat{\alpha}}{SE(\hat{\alpha})} = \frac{3.505}{0.929} = 3.772 \quad \frac{\hat{\beta}}{SE(\hat{\beta})} = \frac{0.494}{0.094} = 5.255$$

$$R^2 = \frac{\beta^2 \sum x_i^2}{\sum y_i^2} = \frac{(0.494)^2 \times 215.4}{86.9} = 0.6048$$

$$\text{Now } \sum e_i^2 = \sum y_i^2 - \beta^2 \sum x_i^2 = 86.9 - (0.494)^2 \times 215.4 = 34.14$$

Now for testing $H_0: \beta = 0$

against the alternative $H_1: \beta \neq 0$, we may use the ANOVA Table

ANOVA TABLE

Source of variation	Sum of squares	Degrees of freedom	Mean sum of squares	F-value	
				Calculated	Table value at 1% and 5% level
Explained between the weeks	$TSS - \beta \sum x_i$ 52.56	$k = 2$	$MSR = \frac{TSS}{k}$ 26.28	$F^* = \frac{MSR}{MSE}$ 27.55	$F_{0.05, 2, 18} = 3.55$ $F_{0.01, 2, 18} = 8.29$
Residual within	$RSS = \sum e_i^2$ 34.34	$n - k = 20 - 2 = 18$	$MSE = \frac{RSS}{n - k}$ 1.908	with df 4	$F_{0.05, 1, 4} = 4.4$
Total	$TSS = \sum y_i^2$ 86.9	$n - 1 = 20 - 1 = 19$			

Here we see that the observed $F^* = 27.55$ is much larger than table $F_{0.05, 2, 18} = 3.55$ and $F_{0.01, 2, 18} = 8.29$. This means that $H_0: \beta = 0$ is rejected both at 5% and 1% levels of significance. Hence we reject the null hypothesis and accept that the regression is significant, that is, X is a significant explanatory factor of the variation in Y .

2.17 Testing the Equality between Coefficients Obtained from Different Regressions or Different Samples

Sometimes we may have to estimate a regression equation separately for several sets of data and we may have to test whether some or all the parameters are the same for all different sets of data.

Suppose, we have two samples on the variables Y and X containing n_1 observations for first set and, Y and X containing n_2 observations for second set. We may obtain two estimates of the same relationship for these two samples

$$Y_1 = \alpha_1 + \beta_1 X$$

$$\text{and } Y_2 = \alpha_2 + \beta_2 X$$

Now our problem is to examine whether these two estimated regressions differ significantly. If yes, then we may conclude that the relationship changes from one sample to the other.

For example, suppose that we have the data on consumption and disposable income for the two periods 1990-1999 and 2000-2009. We estimate the consumption function separately for these periods. Then we may be interested to examine whether the functions are statistically significant or whether the MPC is significantly differ or not.

Step 1. We have to find the pooled variance with the number of degrees of freedom $n_1 + n_2 - 2$.

Step 2. We have to find the expression for each sample distribution.

For first sample $\bar{y}_1 = \frac{\sum y_1}{n_1}$ and $\sum (y_1 - \bar{y}_1)^2 = \sum y_1^2 - \frac{(\sum y_1)^2}{n_1}$

For second sample $\bar{y}_2 = \frac{\sum y_2}{n_2}$ and $\sum (y_2 - \bar{y}_2)^2 = \sum y_2^2 - \frac{(\sum y_2)^2}{n_2}$

Therefore

Step 3. Now we have to compute F value as follows

For first sample $\bar{y}_1 = \frac{\sum y_1}{n_1}$ and $\sum (y_1 - \bar{y}_1)^2 = \sum y_1^2 - \frac{(\sum y_1)^2}{n_1}$

For second sample $\bar{y}_2 = \frac{\sum y_2}{n_2}$ and $\sum (y_2 - \bar{y}_2)^2 = \sum y_2^2 - \frac{(\sum y_2)^2}{n_2}$

Step 3. Now we have to compute F value as follows

$$F = \frac{\frac{\sum y_1^2}{n_1} - \frac{(\sum y_1)^2}{n_1}}{\frac{\sum y_2^2}{n_2} - \frac{(\sum y_2)^2}{n_2}} \text{ with d.f. } (n_1 - 1, n_2 - 1)$$

Now we have to test the null hypothesis

$H_0: \sigma_1^2 = \sigma_2^2$ against the alternative $H_1: \sigma_1^2 \neq \sigma_2^2$

If $F > F_{\alpha/2}$, we reject the null hypothesis at $\alpha\%$ level of significance. In particular, if the pooled results are not given then F value can be obtained as follows

$$F = \frac{\frac{\sum y_1^2}{n_1} - \frac{(\sum y_1)^2}{n_1}}{\frac{\sum y_2^2}{n_2} - \frac{(\sum y_2)^2}{n_2}} \text{ with d.f. } (n_1 - 1, n_2 - 1)$$

Example 2.9 In order to test the null hypothesis that there is no difference in the MPC (Marginal propensity to consume) of manual workers and white colour employees a research team has yielded the following consumption functions

Manual workers: Sample size $n_1 = 15$

$$C_1 = 20 + 0.92Y \quad r^2 = 0.92 \quad \sum (C_1 - \bar{C}_1)^2 = 3.261$$

(The numbers in brackets are the t values for the regression coefficient α)

White colour employees: Sample size $n_2 = 10$

$$C_2 = 100 + 0.82Y \quad r^2 = 0.95 \quad \sum (C_2 - \bar{C}_2)^2 = 4.537$$

The numbers in brackets are the t values for the regression coefficients

Combined sample consumption function

sample size $n = n_1 + n_2 = 10 + 15 = 25$

$$C = 250 + 0.79Y \quad r^2 = 0.92 \quad \sum (C - \bar{C})^2 = 6.730$$

On the basis of the above results, can we accept the hypothesis that there is no difference between the MPCs of the two groups? Use a 5 per cent level of significance?

Solution We specify the estimated consumption function as follows. For the first sample is

$$C_1 = \alpha_1 + \beta_1 Y_1 + e_1 \quad \text{for the second sample} \quad C_2 = \alpha_2 + \beta_2 Y_2 + e_2$$

and the pooled estimated consumption function as $C = \alpha + \beta Y + e$. We have to test the hypothesis

$H_0: \alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = 1$ against the alternative $H_1: H_0$ is not true

where β_1 = MPC of the first sample

β_2 = MPC of the second sample

α_1 = MPL of the pooled samples

The appropriate test statistic will be

$$F^* = \frac{(\sum e_1^2 + \sum e_2^2 + \sum e_p^2) / K}{(\sum e_1^2 + \sum e_2^2) / (n_1 + n_2 - 2K)} \quad \text{with}$$

$$d.f. = K, (n_1 + n_2 - 2K)$$

Now H_0 will be rejected (significant) if $F^* > F_{0.05, K, (n_1 + n_2 - 2K)}$ and will be accepted otherwise

Now on the basis of our given information we see that

From first sample

$$n_1 = 35, r_1^2 = R^2 = 0.92, \sum (C_1 - \bar{C}_1)^2 = \sum e_1^2 = 3.251$$

$$K=2, \hat{\beta}_1 = 1.90 \quad \sum e_1^2 = (1 - R^2) \sum C_1^2 = (1 - 0.92) \cdot 3.251 = 260.08$$

$$\left[\text{since } R^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum e_1^2}{\sum C_1^2} \Rightarrow \frac{\sum e_1^2}{\sum C_1^2} = 1 - R^2 \text{ or } \sum e_1^2 = (1 - R^2) \sum C_1^2 \right]$$

From second sample $n_2 = 10, \beta_2 = 0.82, r_2^2 = R_2^2 = 0.95$

$$\sum (C_2 - \bar{C}_2)^2 = \sum e_2^2 = 4.532, K = 2$$

$$\text{and } \sum e_2^2 = (1 - R_2^2) \sum C_2^2 = (1 - 0.95) \cdot 4.532 = 226.6$$

From the pooled sample $n = n_1 + n_2 = 35 + 10 = 65$

$$\hat{\alpha}_1 = 0.70, r^2 = R^2 = 0.92, \sum e_p^2 = 16.320$$

$$\text{Thus we have, } \frac{(\sum e_p^2 + (\sum e_1^2 + \sum e_2^2)) / K}{(\sum e_1^2 + \sum e_2^2) / (n_1 + n_2 - 2K)}$$

$$= \frac{(16.320 + (260.08 + 226.6)) / 2}{260.08 + 226.6 / (35 + 10 - 2 \times 2)} \quad \text{with d.f.} = (K, n_1 + n_2 - 2K)$$

$$= \frac{(486.86) / 2}{486.68 / 61} = \frac{791.66}{7.9783} = 99.227$$

$$F^* = 99.227 \text{ with d.f. } (2, 61)$$

From the table value we see that $F_{0.05, 1, 20} = 1.64$

Thus we see that $F_{0.05, 1, 20} < F_{0.05, 1, 20}$ hence we reject the null hypothesis. We may thus conclude that the MPH is lower in the case of men > women.

In particular, if the pooled data are not given then

$$F = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{e_i^2}{n-1}}{\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{e_i^2}{n-2}} \quad \text{with } df = (n-1, n-2)$$

Here $F = \frac{26.08/15/20}{2.67/20} = 1.64$ with $df(15, 20)$

$$\begin{aligned} &= 1.64 < 1.6430 \\ &= F_{0.05} \end{aligned}$$

From the table value we see that $F_{0.05, 1, 20} > 1.64$ (approx)

We may thus conclude that the null hypothesis will be accepted (as $F_{0.05, 1, 20} > F_{0.05, 1, 20}$ at 5% level of significance and hence there will be no difference in MPH in the two cases.

2.18 Extension of Linear Regression Model to Non-linear Relationships

In the simple linear regression model we consider a linear relation between two variables X and Y in the form $Y = a + bX + u$. But in many situations this may not be the case. In economics we observe non-linear relationships among the variables.

Some of the most common forms of non-linear relations used in econometrics are given below:

(i) Demand curve with unit elasticity $D = f(P)$, or $D = \frac{Q}{P}$ where D represents quantity demanded and P denotes price.

(ii) Average cost curve. The traditional theory of U-shaped cost curve may be approximated by a polynomial of third degree in output:

$$C = f(q) \text{ or } C = a + \beta_1 q + \beta_2 q^2 + \beta_3 q^3 + u,$$

where C represents cost and q represents the level of output.

Now Average cost $\frac{C}{q} = \frac{a}{q} + \beta_1 + \beta_2 q + \beta_3 q^2$ which is U-shaped curve.

(iii) Production function may be of the form $Q = f(K, L)$ or $Q = AK^\alpha L^\beta$, where Q = level of output, L = labour employed, K = capital employed, α and β are two parameters. This type of production function is called Cobb-Douglas production function.

(iv) The production function may be of the form

$$Q = A^\alpha K^\beta L^\gamma + \epsilon \quad \beta_1 L^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

This type of production function is called CES production function. The symbols have their usual meaning.

Now to estimate the parameters of the linear regression function, we use the non-linear function $\ln Y = \alpha + \beta \ln X$ and estimate α and β by the method of least squares.

In order to find out the elasticity of demand, we use the regression function $\ln Y = \alpha + \beta \ln X$ and differentiate both sides with respect to X to get $\frac{1}{Y} \frac{dY}{dX} = \beta \frac{1}{X}$. This gives the elasticity of demand as β . The knowledge of these functions will help us to choose the appropriate model.

Model	Equation	Slope $\left(\frac{dY}{dX} \right)$	Elasticity $\left(\frac{dY}{dX} \cdot \frac{X}{Y} \right)$
Linear	$Y = \alpha + \beta X$	β	$\beta \left(\frac{X}{Y} \right)^*$
Log-linear	$\log Y = \alpha + \beta \log X$	$\beta \left(\frac{1}{X} \right)$	β
Log-linear	$\log Y = \alpha + \beta X$	$\beta (Y)$	$\beta (X)^*$
Linear-log	$Y = \alpha + \beta \log X$	$\beta \left(\frac{1}{X} \right)$	$\beta \left(\frac{1}{Y} \right)^*$
Reciprocal	$Y = \alpha + \beta \left(\frac{1}{X} \right)$	$-\beta \left(\frac{1}{X^2} \right)$	$-\beta \left(\frac{1}{XY} \right)^*$
Log-reciprocal	$\log Y = \alpha - \beta \left(\frac{1}{X} \right)$	$\beta \left(\frac{Y}{X^2} \right)$	$\beta \left(\frac{1}{X} \right)^*$

Note: * indicates that the elasticity is variable, depending on the value taken by X or Y or both. When no X and Y values are specified, in practice, very often these elasticities are measured at the mean values of these variables, namely \bar{X} , \bar{Y} and \bar{Y} .

Example 2.10. Estimate the investment function $I = f(r) = \alpha(r)^{\beta}u$ on the basis of the following information:

$$n = 11, \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i = 12.2771, \sum_{i=1}^n X_i = 16.6729$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2 = 27.9605, \sum_{i=1}^n X_i Y_i = 15.1222,$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y}) = 3.4864, \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2 = 2.6891,$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2 = 4.8566,$$

where $Y = \log I$, $X = \log r$

Solution The regression function is given by $y = \alpha + \beta x$ with α and β unknown where α and β are the parameters whose values are to be estimated by the OLS method. Taking log on both sides we get

$$\log y = \log \alpha + \beta \log x \text{ or } Y^* = \alpha^* + \beta x^* \quad Y^* = \log y \quad \alpha^* = \log \alpha$$

where $\log y = Y^*$, $\log x = x^*$, $\log \alpha = \alpha^*$ and $\log y = y^*$. This regression line is linear in terms of logs then

The function $Y^* = \alpha^* + \beta x^*$ is of the form $Y = \alpha + \beta x$ and hence we apply the OLS method.

Now by the OLS method we can obtain the estimates of the parameters α^* and

Thus we have

$$\alpha^* = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i - \beta \sum_{i=1}^n X_i}{n} = \frac{3.4864 - 1.2965}{2.689} = 1.2965$$

$$\text{and } \alpha^* = 1 - \beta \bar{X} = 1 - (1.61 + 1.2965) \cdot (1.557) \\ = 1 - (1.61 + 1.9831) \\ = -3.0932$$

$$\left[\text{Here } \bar{Y} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i}{n} = \frac{3.4864}{2} = 1.7432 \text{ and } \bar{X} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i}{n} = \frac{2.689}{2} = 1.3445 \right]$$

$$(ii) R^2 = \frac{\beta \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2} = \frac{\beta \sum_{i=1}^n X_i Y_i - \beta \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \bar{Y}}{\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i Y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i^2}$$

$$= \frac{(1.2965)^2 \times 2.689}{4.8566} = 0.70 \quad R^2 = 0.70$$

$$(iii) \sigma_u^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2}{n-2} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i^2 - \beta^2 \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2}{n-2}$$

$$= \frac{4.8566 - (1.2965)^2 \times 2.689}{2} = \frac{4.8566 - 4.5201}{2} = \frac{0.3365}{2} = 0.16825$$

$$(iv) \text{Var}(\beta) = \frac{\hat{\sigma}_u^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2} = \frac{0.16825}{2.6891} = 0.0623$$

$$SE(\beta) = \sqrt{0.0623} = 0.2496$$

The regression result can now be written as follows:

$$I^* = \alpha + \beta r^*$$

$$\text{or, } \log I = 3.0812 - 1.12465 \log r \quad R^2 = 0.76 \\ (0.1177)$$

or $\log I = 3.0812 - 1.12465 \log r$ where r is analog of $10R/2$

The results show that the constant interest rate of $\log r = 1$ means that the demand for investment is interest elastic. This exact value is not in line with the existing theory.

2.19 Problem of Prediction / Forecasting Relating to a Two-Variable Linear Regression Model

Usually we do not differentiate between prediction and forecasting. We use one or the other interchangeably. But these two terms are not identical. Prediction is a term which means an estimation of any event happening (in the past, present or future) in the other hand, forecasting is always associated with a time dimension, i.e. the future estimation for some specific future duration or over a period of time. All forecasts are predictions, but not all predictions are forecasts, as when we use regression to explain the relationship between two variables, forecast implies time series and future while prediction does not. When we are interested to predict or forecast about future, we call the regression analysis as **historical regression**. With the help of regression analysis we can forecast about the future value on the basis of past and present information of the said variables (X and Y). In the context of forecasting we may also distinguish between *ex-ante forecast* and *ex-post forecast*. Ex-ante forecast is a forecast that uses information available at the time of forecast, whereas ex-post forecast is a forecast that uses information beyond the time at which the forecast is made.

Let us define a classical linear regression model given by $Y = \alpha + \beta X + u$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ with the help of the pairs of observations $(X_1, Y_1), (X_2, Y_2), \dots, (X_n, Y_n)$. We estimate the relationship by the method of least squares. The estimated relationship is $\hat{Y} = \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}X$. In case of time series data we write the regression equation as $Y_t = \alpha + \beta X_t + u_t$.

Now for some value of X (the independent variable), which is not in the sample we may like to estimate the value of Y (the dependent variable).

The process of finding the value of the dependent variable from the estimated relationship for the known value of the independent variable not in the sample is called "Prediction".

Let us suppose that X_0 is the value of the independent variable not in the sample and we have to predict the value of Y when $X = X_0$. There are two types of prediction:

(i) Point prediction. (ii) Interval prediction.

2.19.1 Point Prediction

When prediction is done in terms of a single value of the dependent variable then it is called point prediction. We simply put $X = X_0$ in the estimated relationship and we get, $\hat{Y} = \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}X_0 = Y_0$.

$$\text{Now } \text{var}(\hat{\beta}) = \sigma^2 \left(\frac{1}{n} - \frac{\bar{X}^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \right)$$

$$= \sigma^2 \left(\frac{1}{n} - \frac{(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i)^2}{n \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \right) = \sigma^2 \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - (\sum_{i=1}^n x_i)^2 / n}{n \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \right)$$

$$= \frac{\sigma^2}{n} \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - (\sum_{i=1}^n x_i)^2 / n}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \right)$$

$$\text{or } \text{var}(\hat{\beta}) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n} \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - (\sum_{i=1}^n x_i)^2 / n}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \right)$$

$$= \frac{\sigma^2}{n} \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - (\sum_{i=1}^n x_i)^2 / n}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \right)$$

$$= \frac{\sigma^2}{n} \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - (\sum_{i=1}^n x_i)^2 / n}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \right)$$

$$= \frac{\sigma^2}{n} \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - (\sum_{i=1}^n x_i)^2 / n}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \right)$$

$$\text{Since } \text{var}(\hat{\alpha}) = \sigma^2 \left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{\bar{X}^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \right) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n} + \bar{X}^2 \frac{\sigma^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} = \frac{\sigma^2}{n} + \frac{\sigma^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2$$

$$\text{var}(\hat{\alpha}) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n} + \frac{\sigma^2}{n} \bar{X}^2 + \frac{\sigma^2}{n} \bar{X}^2 \text{var}(\hat{\beta}) + (\bar{X}_0 - \bar{X})^2 \text{var}(\hat{\beta})$$

$$\text{or } \text{var}(\hat{\alpha}) = E(e_0^2) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n} \left(1 + \bar{X}^2 \right) + (\bar{X}_0 - \bar{X})^2 \text{var}(\hat{\beta})$$

Except $\text{var}(\hat{\beta})$ all the terms are constant and positive

So, $\text{var}(\hat{\alpha})$ is minimum when $\text{var}(\hat{\beta})$ is minimum

We know that, $\text{var}(\hat{\beta})$ is minimum when $\hat{\beta}$ is the OLS estimator of β . Hence $\text{var}(\hat{\alpha})$ is minimum when $\hat{\gamma}_0$ is the OLS point-predictor of γ_0 . This is the BLUE property of OLS point predictor. It means that OLS point predictor of γ_0 i.e. $\hat{\gamma}_0$ is the best linear unbiased predictor of γ_0 .

We now consider another case where we want to make a point prediction of $E(Y_0)$.

Here prediction error is defined as $E(Y_0) - \hat{\gamma}_0 = e_0$. We know that $Y_0 = \alpha + \beta X_0 + u_0$

$$E(Y_0) = \alpha + \beta X_0 \text{ because } E(u_0) = 0$$

$$e_0 = \alpha + \beta X_0 - \hat{\alpha} - \hat{\beta} X_0$$

$$= (\alpha - \hat{\alpha}) + (\beta - \hat{\beta}) X_0 = -(\hat{\alpha} - \alpha) - (\hat{\beta} - \beta) X_0$$

$$e_0^2 = (\hat{\alpha} - \alpha)^2 + (\hat{\beta} - \beta)^2 X_0^2 + 2X_0(\hat{\alpha} - \alpha)(\hat{\beta} - \beta)$$

$$\text{or, } E(e_0^2) = E(\hat{\alpha} - \alpha)^2 + X_0^2 E(\hat{\beta} - \beta)^2 + 2X_0 E(\hat{\alpha} - \alpha)(\hat{\beta} - \beta)$$

$$E(e_0^2) = E[\hat{\gamma}_0 - E(Y_0)]^2 = \text{var}(\hat{\alpha}) + X_0^2 \text{var}(\hat{\beta}) + 2X_0 \text{cov}(\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta})$$

$$\text{Since } \bar{y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\alpha + \beta x_i + \epsilon_i) = \alpha + \beta \bar{x} + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i$$

and $\text{cov}(x, y) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})$.

$$E[y] = \alpha + \beta E[x] = \alpha + \beta \bar{x} = \bar{y} \quad \text{and} \quad E[x] = \bar{x}$$

$$E[\bar{y}] = \alpha + \beta E[\bar{x}] = \alpha + \beta \bar{x} = \bar{y}$$

Now putting the values of various and cov in the above expression we get

$$E[y_0] = E[y_1] = \text{var}(y_0) = \text{var}(y_1) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2$$

$$\text{Now } \text{cov}(y_0, y_1) = E[y_0 y_1] - \bar{y}^2$$

$$\frac{\sigma_y^2}{n} + \lambda \text{var}(y_0) - \bar{y}^2 = \text{var}(y_0) - \bar{y}^2 \quad \text{where } \lambda = \frac{\sigma_{\epsilon}^2}{\sigma_y^2} = \frac{\sigma_{\epsilon}^2}{\sigma_y^2 + \sigma_{\epsilon}^2}$$

$\text{var}(y_0)$ is minimum when $\text{var}(y_1)$ is maximum. Now $\text{var}(y_1)$ is maximum when

the y_1 estimate of β for $\text{var}(y_0)$ is minimum when y_0 is the OLS point prediction

$E[y_0]$. This is the BLUE property of the OLS point prediction for y_0 .

2.19.2 Test of Significance of Predictor and Interval Prediction

Case 1 We want to test the null hypothesis $H_0: \beta_0 = 0$ at some specified value against the alternative hypothesis $H_1: \beta_0 > 0$ or $H_2: \beta_0 < 0$ or $H_3: \beta_0 \neq 0$. We use

y_0 as the appropriate statistic of F_0 because y_0 is the BLUE prediction of y_0 when

$\beta_0 = 0 + \beta_1 x_0$. Since y_0 is a linear function of α and β it also follows normal is

distributed. So y_0 is also normally distributed.

$$\text{Since } E(y_0) = E[y_0 - \beta_0] = 0 \quad \text{and } E(y_0) = \bar{y}_0$$

$$\text{and } \text{var}(y_0) = E[y_0 - \bar{y}_0]^2 = E(y_0^2)$$

$$= \sigma_y^2 + \text{var}(\alpha) + \text{var}(\beta) x_0^2 - 2\bar{x}_0 \text{cov}(\alpha, \beta)$$

$$= \sigma_y^2 + \sigma_{\epsilon}^2 \frac{1}{n} + \frac{\lambda}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} x_0^2 - 2\bar{x}_0 \frac{\sigma_{\epsilon}^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \quad \text{where } \text{cov}(\alpha, \beta) = \bar{x} \text{ var}(\alpha)$$

$$\text{and } \text{var}(\beta) = \frac{\sigma_{\epsilon}^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$$

$$\text{var}(Y_0) = \sigma_e^2 \left[1 + \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} (x_0 - \bar{x})^2 \right]$$

It is assumed that Y_0 is normally distributed with mean μ and variance

$$\sigma_e^2 \left[1 + \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} (x_0 - \bar{x})^2 \right] \quad \text{As if } \sigma_e^2 \text{ is unknown we it is to be replaced by its unbiased}$$

estimator $\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 / (n - 2)$. The appropriate test statistic will be given by

$$t = \frac{Y_0 - Y_L}{\sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2}{n-2} + \frac{(x_0 - \bar{x})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}}} \quad t_{n-2}$$

It follows a 't' distribution with $(n - 2)$ degrees of freedom.

Nature of the test If the alternative hypothesis is $H_1: Y_0 \neq 4$ then the null hypothesis will be accepted at 5% level of significance if $t_{0.025, n-2} < t < t_{0.975, n-2}$ and will be rejected otherwise.

If the alternative hypothesis is $H_1: Y_0 > 4$ then $H_0: Y_0 = 4$ will be accepted at 5% level of significance if t (observed) $\leq t_{0.05, n-2}$ (table) and will be rejected otherwise.

If the alternative hypothesis is $H_1: Y_0 < 4$, then $H_0: Y_0 = 4$ will be accepted at 5% level of significance if

t (observed) $\geq t_{0.05, n-2}$ (table), and will be rejected otherwise.

The rejection of the null hypothesis on the basis of the sample data implies the significance of Y_0 .

It should be noted that the same procedure can be used for 1% level of significance.

It can be seen that $(\hat{Y}_0 \pm t_{\alpha/2} \text{ s.e.}(\hat{Y}_0))$ is a confidence interval of Y_0 would be

$$\hat{Y}_0 \pm t_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2}{n-2} + \left(\frac{\hat{Y}_0 - \bar{Y}}{\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2} \right)^2 \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}{n-2}} \quad \text{where } t \text{ usually takes the value } t_{\alpha/2, n-2}$$

Now

Case 2. We want to test the null hypothesis $H_0: E(Y_0) = 4$ against the alternative $H_1: E(Y_0) \neq 4$ or $H_2: E(Y_0) > 4$ or $H_3: E(Y_0) < 4$.

Here we take \hat{Y}_0 as the estimate of $E(Y_0)$ because \hat{Y}_0 is the B.L.U.E. predictor of Y_0 .

Here also \hat{Y}_0 is normally distributed with mean $E(\hat{Y}_0)$ and variance

$$\text{var}(\hat{Y}_0) = \frac{\sigma_u^2}{n} + \left(\frac{\hat{Y}_0 - \bar{Y}}{\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2} \right)^2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2$$

$$= \frac{\sigma_u^2}{n} + \left(\frac{\hat{Y}_0 - \bar{Y}}{\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2} \right)^2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 = \sigma_u^2 \left[\frac{1}{n} + \frac{(\hat{Y}_0 - \bar{Y})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2} \right]$$

So, \hat{Y}_0 is normally distributed with mean $E(\hat{Y}_0)$ and variance $\sigma_u^2 \left[\frac{1}{n} + \frac{(\hat{Y}_0 - \bar{Y})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2} \right]$.

If σ_u^2 is unknown, it is to be replaced by its unbiased estimator $\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2}{n-2}$. The

appropriate test statistic under $H_0: E(Y_0) = 4$ would be

$$T = \frac{\hat{Y}_0 - E(Y_0)}{\sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2}{n-2} \left[\frac{1}{n} + \frac{(\hat{Y}_0 - \bar{Y})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2} \right]}}$$

which follows a t -distribution with $(n-2)$ degrees of freedom.

Nature of the test

If $H_0: E(Y_0) = 4$ is tested against the alternative $H_1: E(Y_0) \neq 4$, then $H_0: E(Y_0) = 4$ will be accepted at 5% level of significance if $t_{0.025, n-2} \leq \text{observed } T \leq t_{0.975, n-2}$ and will be rejected otherwise.

If the alternative hypothesis is $H_1: \beta \neq 0$ then $H_0: \beta = 0$ is rejected at the level of significance α if $|t_{obs}| > t_{\alpha/2, n-2}$ and α has been set otherwise.

If the alternative hypothesis is $H_1: \beta > 0$ then $H_0: \beta \leq 0$ is rejected at the level of significance α if $t_{obs} > t_{\alpha, n-2}$ and α has been set otherwise. The same test procedure is applicable at the level of significance.

It can be seen that $95\% = 1 - \alpha$ confidence interval of β is $\hat{\beta} \pm t_{\alpha/2, n-2}$.

$$\hat{\beta} \pm t_{\alpha/2, n-2} \sqrt{\frac{\sum e_i^2}{n-2} \frac{1}{\sum x_i^2}}$$

where t usually takes the value 0.05 or 0.01.

Example 2.11. Following example 2.5.

(i) Find out the point predictor of Y_i when $X_i = 10$.

(ii) It is claimed that when $X_i = 0$, $Y_i = 65$. Do you think that it is justified?

(iii) It is claimed that when $X_i = 10$, $E(Y_i) = 65$. Do you think that the claim is justified?

Solution

(i) We have to find out the point predictor of Y_i when $X_i = 10$. We know that the point predictor of Y_i is,

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{Y}_i &= \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}X_i && (\text{where } \alpha = 3.505, \beta = 0.494 \text{ See Ex 2.5}) \\ &= 3.505 + 0.494 \times 10 \\ &= 3.505 + 4.94 = 8.435 \\ \hat{Y}_i &= 8.435 \end{aligned}$$

So, point predictor of Y_i is $\hat{Y}_i = 8.435$ when $X_i = 10$.

(ii) We have to examine whether $Y_i = 65$ when $X_i = 10$ is justified or not. We have to test the null hypothesis $H_0: Y_0 = 65$, against the alternative $H_1: Y_0 \neq 65$.

The appropriate test statistic is given by,

$$t = \frac{Y_0 - \hat{Y}_0}{\sqrt{\frac{\sum e_i^2}{n-2} \left[1 + \frac{1}{n} + \frac{(X_0 - \bar{X})^2}{\sum x_i^2} \right]}}$$

Since $\hat{\alpha} = 3.505$, $\hat{\beta} = 0.494$ and $X_0 = 10$,

$$\text{then } \hat{Y}_0 = \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}X_0 = 3.505 + 0.494 \times 10 = 8.435$$

$$\hat{Y}_0 - Y_0 = 8.435 - 65.000 = -56.565$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{and } \sqrt{\frac{\sum e_i^2}{n-2}} &= \sqrt{\frac{0.0004}{10-2}} \\
 &= \sqrt{\frac{0.0004}{8}} = \sqrt{0.00005} \\
 &= \sqrt{0.0004} \cdot \sqrt{0.125} = 0.02 \cdot 0.3535 \\
 &= 0.007071 \\
 &= 0.007
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{and } \frac{\sum e_i}{n-2} &= \frac{4.14}{8} = 0.5175 \\
 &= 0.52 \\
 \text{and } \sum e_i &= 2.94
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Now } t_{\text{observed}} &= \frac{\bar{y}_1 - \bar{y}_0}{\sqrt{\frac{\sum e_i^2}{n-2} \cdot \frac{1}{n} \left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n} \right)}} \\
 &= \frac{0.5438}{0.007} = 115.438
 \end{aligned}$$

$$t = 5.438$$

Here we see that $t_{\text{observed}} = 115.438$ which does not lie in the interval $[-2.101, 2.101]$ and hence the null hypothesis $H_0: \mu_0 = 1\%$ is rejected for the given sample at 5% level of significance. So, $\mu_0 = 1\%$ is not justified when $\lambda_0 = 10$.

(ii) We have to examine whether $E(Y_0) = 5\%$ when $\lambda = 1$.

We have to test the null hypothesis $H_0: E(Y_0) = 5\%$ against the alternative $H_1: E(Y_0) \neq 5\%$.

The statement $E(Y) \neq 5\%$ when $\lambda_0 = 10$ will be justified if our hypothesis $H_0: E(Y_0) = 5\%$ is rejected.

The appropriate test statistic would be

$$t = \frac{\bar{y}_0 - E(Y_0)}{\sqrt{\frac{\sum e_i^2}{n-2} \cdot \frac{1}{n} \left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n} \right)}} = t_{n-2}$$

$$H_0: \beta = 0 \quad \text{vs} \quad H_1: \beta \neq 0$$

$$T = \frac{\hat{\beta}}{\text{SE}(\hat{\beta})} \sim t_{n-2} \quad \text{under } H_0$$

$$\text{SE}(\hat{\beta}) = \frac{\sqrt{\frac{1}{n-2} \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2}}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}}$$

$$\therefore T = \frac{10}{0.31} = 32.26 \quad \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 = 319.4$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

$$= 408 - 20 \times \frac{(0.91)^2}{215.4}$$

$$= \sqrt{408(0.025 + 0.00221)} = \sqrt{10.08 + 0.009221} = \sqrt{10.089221} = 3.176$$

$$\text{Now } t(\text{observed}) = \frac{\hat{\beta}_0 - \beta_0}{\text{SE}(\hat{\beta}_0)} = \frac{10 - 0}{0.31} = 32.26$$

$$t(\text{observed}) = 32.26$$

Now on the basis of the given sample the null hypothesis $H_0: \beta = 0$ will be accepted at 5% level of significance if $-t_{0.025, n-2} \leq t(\text{observed}) \leq t_{0.025, n-2}$ and will be rejected otherwise.

$$\text{Here } t_{0.025, n-2} = t_{0.025, 18} = 2.101$$

So, the observed $t = 32.26$ does not lie in the interval -2.101 and 2.101 and hence the null hypothesis will be rejected. So, $E(Y_0) = 155$ when $X_0 = 10$ is not justified.

Example 2.12. Consider the following regression model $Y = \alpha + \beta X + u$ where u_i is normally distributed with mean zero and variance σ_u^2 (unknown). We have the following data

X	2	3	1	5	9
Y	4	7	3	9	7

- Estimate α and β .
- Test whether α and β are significant or not at 5% level of significance.
- Calculate R^2 .

Let $y_i = \alpha + \beta x_i + \epsilon_i$ where ϵ_i is the error term.

Assume that the error term ϵ_i is independent of x_i and ϵ_i is normally distributed with mean 0 and variance σ^2 .

We want to find the OLS estimates of α and β .

$$\sum_{i=1}^n y_i = \sum_{i=1}^n (\alpha + \beta x_i + \epsilon_i) = n\alpha + \beta \sum_{i=1}^n x_i + \sum_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i$$

Calculations for α , β and R^2

x_i	y_i	x_i^2	y_i^2	$x_i y_i$	$x_i - \bar{x}$	$y_i - \bar{y}$	$(x_i - \bar{x})^2$	$(y_i - \bar{y})^2$	$(x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})$
1	4	1	16	4	-1	2	1	4	-2
2	5	4	25	10	0	3	0	9	0
3	6	9	36	18	1	4	1	16	4
4	7	16	49	28	2	5	4	25	10
$\sum x_i = 10$	$\sum y_i = 30$	$\sum x_i^2 = 40$	$\sum y_i^2 = 100$	$\sum x_i y_i = 60$	$\sum (x_i - \bar{x}) = 0$	$\sum (y_i - \bar{y}) = 0$	$\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2 = 10$	$\sum (y_i - \bar{y})^2 = 34$	$\sum (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y}) = 20$

$$\text{Now } \bar{x} = \frac{\sum x_i}{n} = \frac{10}{5} = 2 \text{ and } \bar{y} = \frac{\sum y_i}{n} = \frac{30}{5} = 6$$

$$\text{Now } \beta = \frac{\sum x_i y_i - \frac{(\sum x_i)(\sum y_i)}{n}}{\sum x_i^2 - \frac{(\sum x_i)^2}{n}} = \frac{60 - \frac{10 \cdot 30}{5}}{40 - \frac{10^2}{5}} = \frac{60 - 60}{40 - 20} = 0 \text{ and } \alpha = \bar{y} - \beta \bar{x} = 6 - 0 \cdot 2 = 6$$

$$\alpha = 6, \beta = 0$$

Thus the OLS estimators of α and β are $\hat{\alpha} = 6$ and $\hat{\beta} = 0$.

The estimated regression line is $\hat{y} = \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}x$ or $\hat{y} = 6 + 0x$.

Now we have to find out $\text{Var}(\hat{\alpha})$ and $\text{Var}(\hat{\beta})$. We know that

$$\text{Var}(\hat{\alpha}) = \sigma_u^2 \frac{\sum x_i^2}{n \sum x_i^2} \text{ and } \text{Var}(\hat{\beta}) = \frac{\sigma_u^2}{\sum x_i^2}$$

But here σ_u^2 is not known and hence it is to be replaced by its unbiased estimator

$$\hat{\sigma}_u^2 = \frac{\sum e_i^2}{(n-2)}$$

$$s^2 = \frac{1}{n-2} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 - \frac{(\sum_{i=1}^n y_i)^2}{n} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{40} (140 - \frac{49^2}{40}) = 1.675$$

$$s = 1.294$$

$$\text{Now } \text{Var } \alpha = \sigma_u^2 \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n 1}{n \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} = \frac{4.67}{40 \times 40} = \frac{4.67}{1600} = 0.00291875$$

$$\text{Var } (\alpha) = 0.0029 \text{ and } SE(\alpha) = \sqrt{\text{Var}(\alpha)} = \sqrt{0.0029} = 0.054$$

$$\text{Similarly } \text{Var } (\beta) = \sigma_u^2 \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} = \frac{4.67}{40} = 0.11675$$

$$\text{Var}(\beta) = 0.11675 \text{ and } SE(\beta) = \sqrt{\text{Var}(\beta)} = \sqrt{0.11675} = 0.3416$$

(ii) Test for α and β :

a) Test for β We have to test the null hypothesis $H_0: \beta = 0$ against the alternative

$H_1: \beta \neq 0$ The appropriate test statistic would be

$$t = \frac{\hat{\beta}}{SE(\hat{\beta})} \sim t_{n-2}$$

The null hypothesis will be accepted at 5% level of significance if $|t_{0.025, n-2}| > t_{0.025, n-2}$ and will be rejected otherwise

Here we see that,

$$t = \frac{\hat{\beta}}{SE(\hat{\beta})} = \frac{\hat{\beta}}{\sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2}{(n-2)} \cdot \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}}} = \frac{0.5}{0.3416} = 1.4637$$

$$t(\text{observed}) = 1.4637$$

But from table value $t_{0.025, n-2} = t_{0.025, 38} = t_{0.025, 40} = 3.182$

Here we see that the $t(\text{observed}) = 1.4637$ lies in the interval -3.182 and 3.182 and hence the null hypothesis is accepted at 5% level of significance.

So, β is insignificant at 5% level significant only when the null hypothesis is rejected.

(b) Test for α . If we test the null hypothesis $\alpha = 0$ against the alternative hypothesis $\alpha \neq 0$, then the null hypothesis will be accepted at 5% level of significance and will be rejected otherwise.

From above, $\alpha = 1.55$, $\beta = 0.5$, $\sigma^2 = 10$, $n = 5$.

$$\text{and } \text{var}(\alpha) = \frac{\sigma^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} = \frac{10}{1674} = 0.00598$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n x_i = \sum_{i=1}^n 1$$

$$\left| \frac{\alpha}{\sqrt{\text{var}(\alpha)}} \right| = \left| \frac{1.55}{\sqrt{0.00598}} \right|$$

Thus we see that z observed = 3.895 lies in the interval $z_{\alpha/2, n-2}$ and $z_{1-\alpha/2, n-2} = z_{0.025, 3} = 3.52$ and 3.52 , and hence the null hypothesis is accepted at 5% level of significance. This means that α is also insignificant at 5% level of significance.

Now we have to calculate the value of R^2 .

$$\text{Since we know that } R^2 = \frac{1.55}{7.55} = \frac{\beta \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2} = \frac{(0.5)^2 \cdot 40}{24} = \frac{10}{24} = 0.4167 \approx 0.42$$

$$R = 0.42 = \frac{42}{100} = \frac{\text{Explained variation}}{\text{Total variation}}$$

This suggests that 42 percent of the variations in the sample observations of Y can be attributed to the variations of the fitted value of Y (i.e., \hat{y}) or we can say that our regression line fits the given data not very well.

From the above results we can write our regression results as follows:

$$Y = 4 + 0.5X, R^2 = 0.42$$

$$SE = (1.674) (0.3416)$$

$$\text{Alternatively, } Y = 4 + 0.5X, R^2 = 0.42$$

$$t \text{ ratios } (2.3895) (1.4637)$$

(v) We have to find out the point predictor of Y when $X = 10$.

The point predictor of Y is given by $\hat{y} = \alpha + \beta x$

$$= 4 + 0.5 \times 10 = 4 + 5 = 9$$

Point predictor $y = 9$ when $x = 10$.

Example 2.13. Following the data given in Example 2

- (i) estimate the regression parameters (assuming a linear regression equation of the form $Y = \alpha + \beta X_i + u_i$ where $u_i \sim N(0, \sigma_u^2)$ (unknown))

(b) calculate R^2

(c) Interpretation about the goodness of fit of the regression equation are measured by R^2 value.

(d) R^2 is the coefficient of determination which is the ratio of the explained variation to the total variation.

(e) R^2 is the square of the correlation coefficient r between the two variables X and Y .

Solution

Table for calculation

X	Y	X^2	Y^2	XY	e_i	e_i^2	\bar{X}	\bar{Y}	R^2
1	3	1	9	3	3.0 - 2.2 = 0.8	0.64	1	3	0.64
2	4	4	16	8	4.0 - 2.2 = 1.8	3.24	2	4	0.36
3	5	9	25	15	5.0 - 2.2 = 2.8	7.84	3	5	0.16
4	6	16	36	24	6.0 - 2.2 = 3.8	14.44	4	6	0.04
5	7	25	49	35	7.0 - 2.2 = 4.8	23.04	5	7	0.00
Total	23	55	135	85			15	23	1.00

Here $n = 5$ as we have data for five months.

$$\text{Now } \bar{X} = \frac{\sum X}{n} = \frac{15}{5} = 3, \bar{Y} = \frac{\sum Y}{n} = \frac{23}{5} = 4.6$$

(i) We have to estimate the regression parameters α and β . Let $\hat{\alpha}$ and $\hat{\beta}$ be the OLS estimators (predictors here) of α and β .

$$\text{We know that } \hat{\beta} = \frac{\sum x_i y_i}{\sum x_i^2} \text{ and } \hat{\alpha} = \bar{Y} - \hat{\beta} \bar{X}$$

$$\hat{\beta} = \frac{12}{10} = 1.2 \text{ and } \hat{\alpha} = \bar{Y} - \hat{\beta} \bar{X} = 4.6 - 1.2 \times 3 = 4.6 - 3.6 = 1$$

Therefore the estimated (predicted) simple regression equation is $\hat{Y} = \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}X$, i.e., $1.0 + 1.2X$.

In the table e_i , \hat{Y}_i can be obtained for different values of X . Since $e_i = Y_i - \hat{Y}_i$.

$$\text{When } X_1 = 1 \text{ and } Y_1 = 3, e_1 = 3 - 1.0 - 1.2 = 1 = 3.0 - 2.2 = 0.8$$

$$X_2 = 2 \text{ and } Y_2 = 4, e_2 = 4 - 1.0 - 2.4 = 1 = 4.0 - 3.4 = 0.6$$

and in this way other e_i values are calculated.

$$(ii) \text{ We know that } R^2 = \frac{ESS}{TSS} = \frac{\beta^2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2} = \frac{(1.2)^2 \times 10}{23.20} = \frac{14.4}{23.20} = 0.620$$

$$\text{Since } \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 = \beta^2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 \text{ i.e., } TSS = ESS + RSS \quad R^2 = 0.620$$

Year	Advertising Expenditure (₹)	Sales Revenue (₹)
1	1	10
2	2	15
3	3	20
4	4	25
5	5	30

The following data of advertising expenditures are also reported for 5 years when sales revenue was ₹ 1000.

We have to find out both confidence interval of the predicted value of sales revenue when $X_0 = ₹ 600$.

The given data are as follows: $X_0 = ₹ 600$. It has confidence interval of the mean function predicted as follows:

$$\hat{Y}_0 \pm t_{\alpha/2, n-2} \sqrt{\frac{1}{n-2} + \frac{(X_0 - \bar{X})^2}{\sum X_i^2}}$$

Here we have $T_0 = 600$ when $\bar{X} = 3$ and $n = 5$

$$\text{and } \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2 = 55, n = 5, \sum_{i=1}^n X_i = 15, \bar{X} = 3, \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2}{(n-2)} = \frac{55}{3} = 18.33$$

and $t_{\alpha/2, n-2} = t_{0.025, 3} = 3.182$ [From table value]

So, 95% confidence interval of the predicted value of sales revenue corresponding to advertising expenditure of ₹ 600 would be

$$18.33 \pm 3.182 \sqrt{\frac{1}{3} + \frac{(600 - 3)^2}{55}}$$

or, 18.33 ± 7.891 or 0.309 and 16.09
⇒ ₹ 309 and ₹ 1609

Thus 95% confidence interval of predicted sales revenue (\hat{Y}_0) corresponding to advertising expenditure of ₹ 600 would be ₹ 309 and ₹ 1609.

(vi) 95% = 100(1 - α)% when $\alpha = 0.05$ confidence interval of expected sales revenue $E(\hat{Y}_0)$ when advertising expenditures are ₹ 600 would be

$$\hat{Y}_0 \pm t_{\alpha/2, n-2} \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2}{n-2} \left[\frac{1}{n} + \frac{(X_0 - \bar{X})^2}{\sum X_i^2} \right]}$$

[Here $\alpha = 0.05$, $t_{\alpha/2, n-2} = t_{0.025, 3} = 3.182$ (from table value)]

$$n = 5, X_0 = 6, \sum X_i^2 = 55, \bar{X} = 3, \frac{\sum X_i^2}{(n-2)} = 18.33$$

The prediction is still given by

$$\hat{Y}_0 = 10 + 12X, \text{ so that when } X = 10, \hat{Y}_0 = 10 + 12 \times 10 = 130$$

$$\text{or } 6.20 \pm 3.182 \times 1.745$$

$$\text{or } 6.20 \pm 5.72 \text{ or } 2.48 \text{ and } 11.92$$

95% confidence interval for the average sales $E(Y_0)$ corresponding to advertising expenditures £ 600 would be £ 2480 and £ 11920

It should be noted that this confidence interval is narrower than the one we obtained for \hat{Y}_0 .

Example 2.14 The following table (Table 2.6) gives data on the level of education (number of years of schooling), the mean hourly wages earned by the people at each level of education and the number of people at the stated level of education.

Table 2.6. Mean Hourly wage by Education

Years of schooling (X)	Mean hourly wage in \$ (Y)	Number of people
6	4.4567	3
7	4.7700	4
8	5.9787	15
9	7.1177	12
10	7.3182	17
11	6.5844	27
12	7.8182	28
13	7.8351	37
14	11.0223	56
15	10.6738	13
16	10.8361	70
17	13.6150	24
18	13.5310	31
Total		478

- Assuming a linear regression line of the form $Y_i = \alpha + \beta X_i + u_i$ ($u_i \sim N(0, \sigma_u^2)$), find the OLS estimators of α and β
- Find $\text{var}(\alpha)$ and $\text{var}(\beta)$
- Find $SE(\alpha)$ and $SE(\beta)$
- Find R^2
- Find $\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2$
- Predict/Forecast about the mean hourly wage when the level of education (years of schooling) is 20

Calculations for the Regression

Phases	X	Y	X^2	Y^2	XY	$Y - \bar{Y}$	$(Y - \bar{Y})^2$
1	2.4	6	5.76	36	14.4	-1.6	2.56
2	3	8	9	64	24	0	0
3	4	8	16	64	32	-1.6	2.56
4	5	9	25	81	45	-0.6	0.36
5	6	10	36	100	60	0.4	0.16
6	7	11	49	121	77	1.4	1.96
7	8	12	64	144	96	2.4	5.76
8	9	13	81	169	117	3.4	11.56
9	10	14	100	196	140	4.4	19.36
10	11	15	121	225	165	5.4	29.16
11	12	16	144	256	192	6.4	40.96
12	13	17	169	289	221	7.4	54.76
13	14	18	196	324	252	8.4	70.56
Total	$\sum_{i=1}^{13} X$ = 120	$\sum_{i=1}^{13} Y$ = 156	$\sum_{i=1}^{13} X^2$ = 1440	$\sum_{i=1}^{13} Y^2$ = 2070	$\sum_{i=1}^{13} XY$ = 1820	$\sum_{i=1}^{13} (Y - \bar{Y})$ = 0	$\sum_{i=1}^{13} (Y - \bar{Y})^2$ = 240.96

Note $n = 13$ $\bar{Y} = \sum Y / n = \frac{156}{13} = 12$

and $\bar{X} = \sum X / n = \frac{120}{13} = 9.23$

$$\beta = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2} = \frac{1820 - 12 \times 120}{1440 - 12 \times 120} = 0.7240967$$

and $\alpha = \bar{Y} - \beta \bar{X} = 12 - 0.7240967 \times 9.23 = 3.445$

The estimated regression equation is

$$\hat{Y} = \alpha + \beta X \text{ or } Y = 3.445 + 0.7240967 X,$$

$$e_i = Y_i - \hat{Y}_i = Y_i - 3.445 - 0.7240967 X_i$$

Now different values of e_i can be obtained by taking different pairs of values and X_i

When $\beta = 0.450$ and $\alpha = 0$, then $\hat{y}_i = \alpha + \beta x_i$ by substituting the values of α and β we get $\hat{y}_i = 0 + 0.450x_i$.
 So, $\hat{y}_i = 0.450x_i$ where values of x_i are as given.

$$\text{Now } \sum_{i=1}^n y_i = 1 + 4.95 + \dots + 18.55 = 1835.454 \quad \text{and } \sum_{i=1}^n x_i = 412.7$$

$$\text{and } \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 = 170.5 + 294.7 + \dots + 14232 = 18354.544$$

(ii) (i) Estimates of α and β will be

$$\hat{\beta} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} = \frac{1 + 79.50 + \dots + 24086.7}{18354.544} = 0.724067$$

$$\text{and } \hat{\alpha} = \bar{y} - \hat{\beta} \bar{x} = 8.6747 - 0.7240967 \times 412.7 = -0.01445$$

$$\hat{\alpha} = 0.0144 \text{ and } \hat{\beta} = 0.7240$$

(ii) We have to calculate the values of $\text{var}(\hat{\alpha})$ and $\text{var}(\hat{\beta})$

$$\sigma_u^2 \sum_{i=1}^n 1$$

We know that $\text{var}(\hat{\alpha}) = \frac{\sigma_u^2 \sum_{i=1}^n 1}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$ Here σ_u^2 is unknown and hence it is replaced

by its unbiased estimator $\hat{\sigma}_u^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2}{(n-2)} = 0.8936$

$$\text{var}(\hat{\alpha}) = \frac{\hat{\sigma}_u^2 \sum_{i=1}^n 1}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} = \frac{0.8936 \times 7054}{13 \times 182} = \frac{1835.4544}{2366} = 0.7757$$

$$\text{var}(\hat{\alpha}) = 0.7757$$

Again, $\text{var}(\hat{\beta}) = \frac{\sigma_u^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$ Here σ_u^2 is unknown and hence it is replaced by its unbiased

estimator $\hat{\sigma}_u^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2}{(n-2)} = 0.8936$

$$\text{var}(\hat{\beta}) = \frac{\hat{\sigma}_u^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} = \frac{0.8936}{182} = 0.004910 \quad \text{var}(\hat{\beta}) = 0.004910$$

$$0.0144 + 0.7240(18) = 13.853117$$

$$\hat{Y} = 0.0144 + 0.7240(18) = 13.853117$$

$$\text{and } \hat{Y} = 0.0144 + 0.7240(18) = 13.853117$$

$$\hat{Y} = 0.0144 + 0.7240(18) = 13.853117$$

$$\text{Since } \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{Y}_i = \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{Y} = \sum_{i=1}^n (0.0144 + 0.7240 X_i) = 0.0144n + 0.7240 \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$$

$$\text{Since } \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{Y}_i = \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i = \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i \text{ or } 7255 = 145 + 1855$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{Y}_i = (0.0144n) + 18(1855) = 0.0144n + 33390$$

$$\text{So, } \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{Y}_i = \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i = 7255 = 0.0144n + 33390 \Rightarrow 0.0144n = 7255 - 33390 = -26135$$

(iv) We have to forecast/predict about the mean hourly wage rate when the level of education (years of schooling) is 20.

Since the estimated regression equation is $\hat{Y}_i = 0.0144 + 0.7240 X_i$,

The point predictor of Y is given by $\hat{Y} = \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}X$

When $X = X_0$, $\hat{Y}_0 = \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}X_0$

So, when the level of education is $X_0 = 20$, the mean hourly wage rate would be

$$\hat{Y}_0 = 0.0144 + 0.7240(20) = 14.4944$$

So, mean hourly wage rate would be \$14.4944 when years of schooling increase to 20.

(v) We have to construct 95% confidence interval for the point predictor of hourly wage rate (Y_0) when the level of education becomes $X_0 = 20$. This confidence interval would be

$$\hat{Y}_0 \pm t_{\alpha/2, n-2} \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2}{n-2} \left[1 + \frac{1}{n} + \frac{(\bar{X} - X_0)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2} \right]}$$

When $X = X_0 = 20$, $Y_0 = \hat{Y}_0 = 0.0144 + 0.7240 = 20 = 14.4656$

(Table value) $t_{0.025, 11} = 2.201$

$$s.e.e = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n-2} \left(1 + \frac{(X_0 - \bar{X})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \right)} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{13} \left(1 + \frac{(20 - 12)^2}{182} \right)}$$

(Table value) $t_{0.025, 11} = 2.201$ as in (i) is confidence interval of Y at X_0 is given by

$$Y_0 \pm t_{0.025} \cdot s.e.e = \hat{Y}_0 \pm t_{0.025} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{1}{n-2} \left(1 + \frac{(X_0 - \bar{X})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \right)}$$

$$\text{or } 14.4656 \pm 2.201 \sqrt{0.8936 \left(1 + \frac{(20 - 12)^2}{182} \right)}$$

$$\text{or } 14.4656 \pm 2.201 \sqrt{0.8936 \left(1 + \frac{1}{13} \right)} = 14.4656 \pm 2.201 \sqrt{1.07692}$$

$$\text{or } 14.4656 \pm 2.201 \sqrt{1.15164}$$

$$\text{or } 14.4656 \pm 2.201 \sqrt{1.3256} \text{ or } 14.4656 \pm 2.201 \sqrt{1.7656}$$

$$\text{or } 14.4656 \pm 2.201 \times 1.3284 \text{ or } 14.4656 \pm 2.9258$$

$$\text{i.e. } 9.788 \text{ and } 16.9524$$

95% confidence interval of hourly wage rate would be \$ 9.788 and \$ 16.9524 when the level of education (years of schooling) is 20

(v.) We have to construct 95% confidence interval of expected mean hourly wage rate when the level of education is $X_0 = 20$ (years of schooling)

When $X = X_0 = 20$, $E(Y|X_0 = 20)$ can be obtained as $\hat{Y}_0 = \alpha + \beta X_0 = 0.0144 + 0.7240 \times 20 = 14.4656$

Thus 95% confidence interval of $E(Y|X_0)$ when $X_0 = 20$ would be

$$Y_0 \pm t_{0.025, n-2} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2}{n-2} \left(1 + \frac{(\bar{X} - X_0)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \right)}$$

Here $\hat{Y}_0 = 14.4656$, $n = 13$, $t_{0.025, n-2} = t_{0.025, 11} = 2.201$ (Table value)

$$\bar{X} = 12, X_0 = 20 \text{ and } \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 = 182, \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2}{(n-2)} = 0.8936$$

$$\text{Now, } \hat{Y}_{11} = 9.11 + \frac{\left[\frac{\sum x_i^2}{n} - \bar{x}^2 \right]}{\sum x_i^2 - n\bar{x}^2} \left[\frac{\sum x_i y_i}{n} - \bar{x}\bar{y} \right]$$

$$= 14.4656 + \frac{0.0016}{0.0016} \left[\frac{0.0016}{0.0016} \right]$$

$$\text{or } 14.4656 \pm 7.70 \sqrt{0.0016} = 0.42857 \text{ or } 14.4656 \pm 7.70 \sqrt{0.0016} = 0.42857$$

$$\text{or } 14.4656 - 7.70 = 6.7657 \text{ or } 14.4656 + 7.70 = 22.1656$$

$$\text{or } 17.030 \text{ and } 22.1656$$

Thus, 95% confidence interval of expected mean hourly wage rate corresponding to the level of education (year of schooling) is 17.030 and 22.1656.

Example 2.43. The following table (Table 2.7) shows consumption expenditure and per capita income in billions of \$ of a country over the period 1967-2008.

Table 2.7 Consumption expenditure and income of a country (in billions of \$)

Year	Consumption expenditure (x)	Income (y)
1967	227.5	150.9
1968	231.1	171
1969	235.5	194.7
1970	236.5	214.5
1971	236.6	230.8
1972	236.6	246.7
1973	236.6	261.5
1974	236.6	274.5
1975	236.6	288.1
1976	236.6	301.2
1977	236.6	314.2
1978	236.6	327.2

From the data given in the table we have the following results

$$\hat{Y}_1 = 1.76 + 0.71X, R^2 = 0.998, \sigma_e^2 = \frac{\sum e_i^2}{n-2} = \frac{284.6}{15.79} = 18.04$$

$$R = 49\%, n = 16$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - \frac{1}{n} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i \right)^2 = 51.487, \bar{x} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i}{n} = 236.6$$

$$\bar{y} = \text{Income in the year 2025} = 5850 \text{ billion}$$

(i) Forecast about consumption expenditure of the country for the year 2025 if income in that year increases to 5850 billion

(ii) Construct 95% confidence interval of the consumption expenditure. Predicted forecast for the year 2025

Solution

$$Y_{1994} = 31.78 + 0.71 X_1 \text{ or, when } X_1 = 840 = X_0$$

$$31.78 + 0.71 \times 840 = 634.26 = \$634 \text{ billion}$$

Therefore, the predicted consumption expenditure of the country for the year 1994 is \$634 billion.

Now, we shall estimate the 95% confidence interval of the predicted consumption expenditure of the country for the year 2024.

We know that the 95% confidence interval of the predicted consumption expenditure of the country for the year 2024 would be

$$\hat{Y}_{2024} \pm t_{n-2} \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} + \frac{(X_1 - \bar{X})^2}{\sum (X_1 - \bar{X})^2}} \sqrt{\frac{1}{n-2} \sum (Y_i - \hat{Y}_i)^2}$$

$$= 873.46 \pm \sqrt{385.61} \left[1 + \frac{1}{12} + \frac{123.904}{151.482} \right]$$

$$\text{or } 645 + 2.228 \times 385.6 = 886.4$$

$$\text{or } 645 + 2.228 \times 534 = 883.5$$

$$\text{or } 645 + 2.228 \times 2 = 649.5$$

$$\text{or } 645 + 5 = 650$$

$$\text{or } 583.5 \text{ and } 686.4884$$

Thus, 95% confidence interval of predicted consumption expenditure of the country for the year 2024 would be \$583.5 billion and \$686.4884 billion.

EXERCISE

1. In a simple linear regression model, $\hat{Y}_i = \alpha + \beta X_i + u_i$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ where we insert the random disturbance term u_i .
2. State and explain the assumptions of a classical linear regression model (CLRM).
3. In a simple linear regression model of the form $\hat{Y} = \alpha + \beta X + u$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ how can you estimate the regression parameters α and β ?
4. Describe briefly the method of moments, used in estimating the regression parameters in a two variable linear regression model.
5. Describe briefly the method of least squares used in estimating the regression parameters relating to a two variable linear regression model.
6. How can you estimate a linear function (two variable) whose intercept is zero?
7. How can you estimate the elasticities from an estimated regression line?
8. State and prove the properties of the least squares estimators relating to a two variable linear regression model (CLRM).
9. Show that in a classical linear regression model the estimated regression parameters are unbiased.
10. Determine the mean and variance of $\hat{\alpha}$ and $\hat{\beta}$ relating to a model $\hat{Y} = \alpha + \beta X + u$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$.

estimate β_1 and β_2 and calculate estimates $\hat{\beta}_1$ and $\hat{\beta}_2$ of β_1 and β_2 and estimate $\hat{\sigma}^2$ to find the unbiased mean value $\hat{\sigma}^2$ corresponding to a given n . Find $\hat{\sigma}^2$.

27. The following table shows the 10 estimated expenditures and the 10 estimated incomes of the ten years period.

Year	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969
Expenditure	2500	2600	2700	2800	2900	3000	3100	3200	3300
Income	2000	2100	2200	2300	2400	2500	2600	2700	2800

Test the hypothesis that expenditure is inferior to income by fitting a regression line to the above data and conducting the F-test and t-test. (10 marks)

28. Given the following data

$$Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_n \quad X_1 = 10, X_2 = 20, \dots, X_n = 50, n = 10$$

in the model $Y_i = \alpha + \beta X_i + u_i$ and test the hypothesis $H_0: \beta = 1$ against the alternative (i) $\beta = 1.5$, (ii) $\beta > 1.5$, (iii) $\beta = 1.3$.

29. The true relationship between X and Y in the population is given by $Y = 2 + 3X + u$. Suppose the value of X in the sample of 10 observations are 1, 2, 3, ..., 10. The values of the disturbances are drawn at random from a normal population with zero mean and constant variance.

$$u_1 = 0.464, u_2 = 0.06, u_3 = 1.48, u_4 = 0.2, u_5 = 1.39, u_6 = 0.7, u_7 = 0.4, u_8 = 0.64, u_9 = 0.18 \text{ and } u_{10} = -1.37$$

(i) Present the 10 observed values of X and Y .

(ii) Estimate the least squares estimates of the regression coefficients and their standard errors.

(iii) Obtain the predicted value of Y for $X = 12$.

30. The following data gives the production of coal and the number of wage earners in the coal industry.

Output million tonnes	20.8	20	211.5	208.9	207.4	205.3	198.3	192.1	183.2	176.8
Number of workers ('000s)	706.2	703	701.8	699.1	697.4	795.3	692.7	630.2	612.1	53

- (i) Estimate the production function (linear) of coal.
(ii) Find average and marginal productivity of labour.
(iii) Estimate t -ratios and test their significance.

31. The following are data on

Y = Quit rate per 100 employees in manufacturing

X = unemployment rate

The data are for the United States and cover the period 1960-1972

Year	Y	X	Year	Y	X
1960	1.3	6.2	1966	2.6	3.7
1961	1.2	7.8	1967	2.3	3.6
1962	1.4	5.8	1968	2.5	3.3
1963	1.4	5.7	1969	2.7	3.3
1964	1.5	5.0	1970	2.1	5.6
1965	1.9	4.0	1971	1.8	6.8
			1972	2.2	5.6

32. Suppose that the demand curve for a good is given by $Q = 100 - 5P$, where Q is the quantity demanded and P is the price. Suppose that the supply curve for the good is given by $Q = 20 + 10P$, where Q is the quantity supplied and P is the price. Find the equilibrium price and quantity.

33. The following table shows the relationship between the price of a good and the quantity demanded. Estimate the demand curve for the good and use it to find the equilibrium price and quantity.

Year	Price (\$)	Quantity (1000s)
1980	1.50	100
1981	1.60	90
1982	1.70	80
1983	1.80	70
1984	1.90	60

34. A random sample of 100 families had the following annual food expenditures per week:

Family	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Family Income	2000	2200	2400	2600	2800	3000	3200	3400	3600	3800
Family Expenditure	20	22	24	26	28	30	32	34	36	38

Estimate the regression line of food expenditure on family income and interpret your results.

35. The following results have been obtained from a sample of 100 observations on the value of sales Y as a function of the corresponding price X :

$$\bar{Y} = 50.0, \quad \bar{X} = 2.5, \quad \sum Y_i = 5000, \quad \sum X_i = 250, \quad \sum Y_i^2 = 25000, \quad \sum X_i^2 = 625, \quad \sum Y_i X_i = 1250$$

(i) Estimate the regression line of sales on price and interpret the results.

(ii) What is the form of the relationship of sales with price explained by the regression line?

(iii) Estimate the price elasticity of sales.

36. The following table gives the quantities of commodity Z bought in each year from 1980 to 1984 and the corresponding prices.

Year	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989
Quantity (in units)	10	15	20	25	30	35	40	45	50	55
Price (in \$)	1.0	1.2	1.4	1.6	1.8	2.0	2.2	2.4	2.6	2.8

(i) Estimate the linear demand function for commodity Z .

(ii) Calculate the price elasticity of demand.

(iii) Forecast the demand at the new price of the sample.

(iv) Forecast the demand at $P = 3.0$.

37. A sample of 20 observations in a time series data on X and Y is to be used for estimating the linear function $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X$. The first 10 observations give the following results:

$$\bar{X} = 15.75, \quad \bar{Y} = 160.00, \quad \sum_{i=1}^{10} X_i = 157.5, \quad \sum_{i=1}^{10} Y_i = 1600.0, \quad \sum_{i=1}^{10} X_i^2 = 2500.0, \quad \sum_{i=1}^{10} Y_i^2 = 256000.0, \quad \sum_{i=1}^{10} X_i Y_i = 25000.0$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{10} X_i = 157.5, \quad \sum_{i=1}^{10} Y_i = 1600.0, \quad \sum_{i=1}^{10} X_i^2 = 2500.0, \quad \sum_{i=1}^{10} Y_i^2 = 256000.0, \quad \sum_{i=1}^{10} X_i Y_i = 25000.0$$

17. 10 independent years of values of X and Y yield $\bar{X} = 1.2$ and $\bar{Y} = 0.8$.

$\sum_{i=1}^{10} X_i = 12$ and $\sum_{i=1}^{10} Y_i = 8$.

18. The following table shows the data on the quantity supplied of a commodity

37

in different years.

Year	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Quantity (thousands)	10	12	14	16	18	20	22	24	26	28

38. Test the hypothesis that the quantity supplied and price are related by

estimating the export supply function $Q = a + bP$ where a and b are parameters to be estimated.

39. Show that β is a part of the price elasticities of supply and demand curves for the latter.

40. The price of a commodity becomes \$4 and in 1994 it becomes \$5. Hence find the export volume of the commodity in these years.

38. The following table includes the total cost and the quantity of firm A over a 10-year period.

Year	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Quantity (X)	40	42	44	46	48	50	52	54	56	58
Total cost (Y)	130	140	150	160	170	182	195	208	220	235

(i) Estimate the linear cost function $Y = a + bX$

(ii) Find the AVC, MC and AC and plot them roughly on a graph.

39. The total investment function for the economy as a whole is assumed to be of the form

$$I = \alpha r^{\beta} e^{\gamma}$$

where I = investment, r = rate of interest

The following sample is given

I (\$ billion)	9.0	5.5	8.5	4.0	3.5	2.5	3.0	1.5	1.2	1.8	1.5
r (percent)	2	3	2	4	5	6	4	6	8	7	9

(i) Estimate the parameters of the investment function by OLS.

(ii) Test the statistical significance of the coefficients at 5% level of significance.

(iii) Construct a 95% confidence interval for β .

(iv) Find the value of R^2 and interpret the result.

40. a. Write down the assumptions essential for each of the following tasks

(i) Proving that the OLS estimators are unbiased

41. (i) Find the Y and X means and the Y and X standard deviations.

(ii) Find the Y and X standard errors.

(iii) Find the Y and X regression lines and the Y and X correlation coefficient.

(iv) Find the Y and X regression lines and the Y and X correlation coefficient.

$$Y = a + bX \quad X = c + dY$$

42. (i) Find the following estimated regression equation $\hat{Y} = a + bX$ with error in standard error of \hat{Y} and the standard error of \hat{Y} . It has further been given that $\hat{Y} = 10$.

$$Y = a + bX \quad \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i = 100$$

Find the following:

(a) Sample size n (b) The estimated intercept a (c) \hat{Y} and \hat{Y} standard error

(d) Residual sum of squares (RSS) (e) Estimated error variance σ^2

43. (i) In a two variable regression model, show that $R^2 = \frac{SSR}{TSS}$

(ii) Explain why random error term is introduced in an econometric model.

(iii) Which one would you consider to be C/D/M + first regression

$$(i) Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 \quad (ii) Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 \quad (iii) Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 \quad (iv) Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4$$

44. Consider the following estimated two variable (LDM) $\hat{Y} = a + bX$ in which n

$$n = 10, \quad \bar{Y} = 10, \quad \sum Y^2 = 1100, \quad \sum X^2 = 400$$

(i) Obtain the estimated regression coefficients when X is regressed on Y

(ii) Obtain the coefficient of correlation between X and Y

(iii) Obtain the unbiased estimator of the error variance when Y is regressed on X

(iv) Obtain the estimated value of the intercept with and its estimated standard error when X is regressed on Y

(v) Test the hypothesis that Y is positively related to X at 5% level of significance

45. Consider the following regression equation $\hat{Y} = a + bX + u$, where $n = 10$ and

$$\sum Y = 100, \quad \sum X^2 = 400, \quad \sum Y^2 = 1100, \quad \sum X Y = 400$$

(a) Obtain the estimated value of a and b

(b) Test the hypothesis that X and Y are negatively correlated against the hypothesis that they are not at 5% level of significance

3

Multiple Linear Regression Model

1) Introduction

In simple regression analysis we study the relationship between an explanatory (dependent) variable y and an explanatory (independent) variable x . In multiple regression analysis we study the relationship between y and a number of explanatory variables x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k . For example, in demand studies we may be interested in good prices of substitute goods and income of the consumer. In fact this problem can be analysed with the help of multiple regression analysis.

Let us consider a linear regression model where there are k independent variables x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k and y is the only dependent variable. In this case the regression model is given by,

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \beta_3 x_{i3} + \dots + \beta_k x_{ik} + u_i, \text{ where } i = 1, 2, \dots, n \quad (3.1)$$

Here $\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_k$ are $(k+1)$ regression parameters

k = number of explanatory variables and $k+1$ = number of regression parameters
 u_i = random disturbance term (error term).

β_0 = constant term and $\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_k$ are the partial regression coefficients.

We make the following assumptions about u_i :

(i) $E(u_i) = 0$ for all $i, i = 1, 2, \dots, n$

(ii) $\text{var}(u_i) = \sigma_u^2$ for all i

(iii) u_i and u_j are independent for all $i \neq j$

(iv) u_i and x_j are independent for all i and j

(v) u_i is normally distributed for all $i, u_i \sim N(0, \sigma_u^2)$

(vi) There is no linear dependencies in the explanatory variables.

Under the first four assumptions, we can show that the method of least squares gives estimators of $\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_k$ that are unbiased and have minimum variance.

In equation (3.1) if we put $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$, we have

$$\text{For } i = 1, Y_1 = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{11} + \beta_2 x_{12} + \dots + \beta_k x_{1k} + u_1$$

$$i = 2, Y_2 = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{21} + \beta_2 x_{22} + \dots + \beta_k x_{2k} + u_2$$

$$i = 3, Y_3 = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{31} + \beta_2 x_{32} + \dots + \beta_k x_{3k} + u_3$$

$$\vdots$$

$$i = n, Y_n = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{n1} + \beta_2 x_{n2} + \dots + \beta_k x_{nk} + u_n$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{11}^2 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_{22}^2 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & \sigma_{nn}^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Note $E(\mu_i \mu_j) = 0$ for $i, j \neq i$

$$\text{and } E(\mu_i^2) = \sigma_{ii}^2$$

$$\text{Rank of } \Sigma = \text{rank} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix} = n$$

μ is a multivariate normal vector with mean μ_0 and variance-covariance matrix Σ .

X is the independent variables x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k are non-stochastic or non-random or X is a non-stochastic matrix.

* Rank of matrix X is $(K - 1)$.

Rank of a matrix implies the maximum number of linearly independent columns of the matrix.

Since X is a matrix of order $n \times (K - 1)$, all the columns of X should be linearly independent. Now X' is a matrix of order $(K - 1) \times n$ and $X'X$ is a matrix of order $(K - 1) \times (K - 1)$. If the rank of X is $(K - 1)$ then rank of $X'X$ is also $(K - 1)$ and $X'X \neq 0$ if its rank is $(K - 1)$ and $X'X = 0$ if its rank is $(K - 1)$.

If $X'X = 0$ then $(X'X)^{-1}$ does not exist.

3.2. The Least Squares Method (OLS) for Estimation of Regression Parameters

In vector matrix form the general linear regression model (Equation 3.1) can be written as, $Y = X\beta + \mu$

$$\text{where } Y = \begin{bmatrix} Y_1 \\ Y_2 \\ \vdots \\ Y_{n-k+1} \end{bmatrix}, X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & X_{11} & X_{12} & \dots & X_{1k} \\ 1 & X_{21} & X_{22} & \dots & X_{2k} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & X_{n-k+1,1} & X_{n-k+1,2} & \dots & X_{n-k+1,k} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mu = \begin{bmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \mu_2 \\ \vdots \\ \mu_{n-k+1} \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \beta = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_{k-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

as $\hat{Y} = \hat{Y}_i$ be the value of the regressed value of Y

$$\beta_0$$

$$\beta$$

and $\hat{\beta} = \hat{\beta}$ be the vector of estimators

$$[\hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2, \dots, \hat{\beta}_K]$$

where \hat{Y} is a $(n \times 1)$ order vector and X is a $(n \times (K+1))$ order matrix

Let e be the residual vector i.e. $e = Y - \hat{Y}$ where $\hat{Y} = X\hat{\beta}$ and $Y = Y_i$

$$e = Y - X\hat{\beta}$$

$$\text{Here, } e = \begin{bmatrix} e_1 \\ e_2 \\ \vdots \\ e_n \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and } e = (e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n)$$

$$\text{Now } e'e = (e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n) \begin{bmatrix} e_1 \\ e_2 \\ \vdots \\ e_n \end{bmatrix} = e_1^2 + e_2^2 + \dots + e_n^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 \quad e'e = \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2$$

$$e'e = (Y - X\hat{\beta})(Y - X\hat{\beta})$$

$$= Y'Y - \hat{\beta}'X'Y - Y'X\hat{\beta} + \hat{\beta}'X'X\hat{\beta}$$

Here, $\hat{\beta}'X'Y$ is scalar (1×1). It is equal to its transpose i.e. $\hat{\beta}'X'Y = Y'X\hat{\beta}$

Now by OLS method we have to minimise $\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 = e'e$ with respect to $\hat{\beta}$

$$\text{Now } \frac{d(e'e)}{d\hat{\beta}} = 0 \Rightarrow X'Y - X'X\hat{\beta} = 0$$

$$\text{or } 2X'X\hat{\beta} = 2X'Y \quad \text{or } X'X\hat{\beta} = X'Y$$

$$\text{or, } \hat{\beta} = (X'X)^{-1}X'Y, \text{ where } \hat{\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_K \end{bmatrix}_{(K+1 \times 1)}$$

To derive this result more clearly we consider a three variable (with two explanatory variables i.e., when $K=2$) linear regression model which takes the form

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + u_i, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + u_i \quad \text{where } u_i = y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_i$$

We take deviations from respective means, i.e. \bar{y} and \bar{x}

$$y_i - \bar{y} = \beta_0 - \bar{\beta}_0 + \beta_1 x_i - \bar{\beta}_1 \bar{x} + u_i - \bar{u}$$

$$\Rightarrow \beta_1 x_i + \beta_0 - \bar{\beta}_0 - \bar{\beta}_1 \bar{x} = u_i - \bar{u} \quad \text{where } \bar{\beta}_0 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_0 = \beta_0$$

$$\text{and } \bar{u} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n u_i = 0$$

$$\text{Let us define } Y = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 - \bar{y} \\ y_2 - \bar{y} \\ \vdots \\ y_n - \bar{y} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$Y = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 - \bar{y} \\ y_2 - \bar{y} \\ \vdots \\ y_n - \bar{y} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 - \bar{x} \\ x_2 - \bar{x} \\ \vdots \\ x_n - \bar{x} \end{bmatrix} \beta = X \beta \quad \text{and } \beta = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

β vector-matrix form the equation,

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + u_i, \text{ for } i = 1, 2, \dots, n, \text{ can be written as } Y = X\beta + u$$

$$\text{Now } Y'Y = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 - \bar{y} & y_2 - \bar{y} & \dots & y_n - \bar{y} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 - \bar{y} \\ y_2 - \bar{y} \\ \vdots \\ y_n - \bar{y} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2 & \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})(x_i - \bar{x}) \\ \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y}) & \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Now } Y'Y\beta = \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2 & \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})(x_i - \bar{x}) \\ \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y}) & \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2 \end{bmatrix} \beta$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 & \beta_1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2 & \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})(x_i - \bar{x}) \\ \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y}) & \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \beta_0^2 \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2 + \beta_1 \beta_0 \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})(x_i - \bar{x}) + \beta_0 \beta_1 \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y}) + \beta_1^2 \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2$$

$$\beta' X' X \beta = \beta_0^2 \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2 + 2\beta_0 \beta_1 \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})(x_i - \bar{x}) + \beta_1^2 \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2$$

$$\text{Now } \frac{d}{d\beta} \beta' X' X \beta = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{d}{d\beta_0} (\beta' X' X \beta) \\ \frac{d}{d\beta_1} (\beta' X' X \beta) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{d\beta} (\beta' X' X \beta) &= \frac{d}{d\beta} (\beta' X' X \beta) = 2 \beta' X' X \\ \frac{d}{d\beta} (\beta' X' X \beta) &= \frac{d}{d\beta} (\beta' X' X \beta) = 2 \beta' X' X \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{d}{d\beta} (\beta' X' X \beta) = 2 \beta' X' X$$

$$\text{Again } \frac{d}{d\beta} (\beta' X' X \beta) = \frac{d}{d\beta} (\beta' X' X \beta) = 2 \beta' X' X$$

$$= \frac{d}{d\beta} (\beta' X' X \beta) = 2 \beta' X' X$$

$$\text{Now } \frac{d}{d\beta} (\beta' X' X \beta) = \frac{d}{d\beta} (\beta' X' X \beta) = 2 \beta' X' X$$

$$\text{Hence } \frac{d}{d\beta} (\beta' X' X \beta) = 2 \beta' X' X$$

$$\frac{d}{d\beta} (\beta' X' X \beta) = 2 \beta' X' X$$

$$\text{Again } \frac{d}{d\beta} (\beta' X' X \beta) = \frac{d}{d\beta} (\beta' X' X \beta) = 2 \beta' X' X$$

$$= \frac{d}{d\beta} (\beta' X' X \beta) = 2 \beta' X' X$$

$$\text{Now } \frac{d}{d\beta} (\beta' X' X \beta) = \frac{d}{d\beta} (\beta' X' X \beta) = 2 \beta' X' X$$

$$\text{Thus we have } \frac{d}{d\beta} (\beta' X' X \beta) = 2 \beta' X' X$$

$$\frac{d}{d\beta} (Y' X \beta) = X' Y \text{ and } \frac{d}{d\beta} (\beta' X' X \beta) = 2 \beta' X' X$$

$$\text{Since } e'e = Y' Y - \beta' X' Y - Y' X \beta + \beta' X' X \beta$$

$$\text{or } \begin{bmatrix} \sum x_{1j}^2 & \sum x_{1j}x_{2j} \\ \sum x_{1j}x_{2j} & \sum x_{2j}^2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sum x_{1j}y_j \\ \sum x_{2j}y_j \end{bmatrix}$$

the equations we can find out the values of β_1 and β_2 .

$$\text{Now } \beta = (X'X)^{-1}X'Y$$

$$\text{or } \beta = \text{adj}(X'X)X'Y$$

Now $\text{Adj}(X'X)$ = Transpose of matrix whose elements are $\frac{1}{\Delta} \begin{vmatrix} \sum x_{2j}^2 & -\sum x_{1j}x_{2j} \\ -\sum x_{1j}x_{2j} & \sum x_{1j}^2 \end{vmatrix}$

or

$$\text{or } \begin{bmatrix} \sum x_{2j}^2 & -\sum x_{1j}x_{2j} \\ -\sum x_{1j}x_{2j} & \sum x_{1j}^2 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } X'Y = \begin{bmatrix} \sum x_{1j}y_j \\ \sum x_{2j}y_j \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Adj}(X'X) = \begin{bmatrix} \sum x_{2j}^2 & -\sum x_{1j}x_{2j} \\ -\sum x_{1j}x_{2j} & \sum x_{1j}^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{or } \begin{bmatrix} \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\Delta} \begin{bmatrix} \sum x_{2j}^2 & -\sum x_{1j}x_{2j} \\ -\sum x_{1j}x_{2j} & \sum x_{1j}^2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sum x_{1j}y_j \\ \sum x_{2j}y_j \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\hat{\beta} = \frac{1}{\Delta} \begin{bmatrix} \sum x_{2j}^2 & -\sum x_{1j}x_{2j} \\ -\sum x_{1j}x_{2j} & \sum x_{1j}^2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sum x_{1j}y_j \\ \sum x_{2j}y_j \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{and } \rho_c = \frac{1}{\Delta} \begin{bmatrix} \sum x_{2j}^2 & -\sum x_{1j}x_{2j} \\ -\sum x_{1j}x_{2j} & \sum x_{1j}^2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sum x_{1j}y_j \\ \sum x_{2j}y_j \end{bmatrix}$$

when $\hat{\beta}_1$ and $\hat{\beta}_2$ are known, $\hat{\beta}_0$ can be obtained from the relation

$$\bar{Y} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \bar{X}_1 + \beta_2 \bar{X}_2 \quad (\beta_0 = ?) \quad \beta_1, \beta_2 \text{ are known}$$

We can also find out the values of β_1 and β_2 directly by using Cramer's rule

Since $\beta = (X'X)^{-1}X'Y$ or $(X'X)\beta = X'Y$

$$\text{or } \begin{bmatrix} \sum x_i & \sum x_i^2 \\ \sum x_i y_i & \sum y_i^2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sum x_i y_i \\ \sum x_i^2 y_i \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{or } \begin{bmatrix} \sum x_i & \sum x_i^2 \\ \sum x_i y_i & \sum y_i^2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sum x_i y_i \\ \sum x_i^2 y_i \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{or } \beta_1 \sum x_i + \beta_2 \sum x_i^2 = \sum x_i y_i \quad (A)$$

$$\text{and } \beta_1 \sum x_i y_i + \beta_2 \sum x_i^2 y_i = \sum x_i^2 y_i \quad (B)$$

Solving equations A and B by Cramer's rule we have

$$\beta_1 = \frac{\sum x_i y_i \sum x_i^2 y_i - \sum x_i^2 y_i \sum x_i y_i}{\sum x_i y_i \sum x_i^2 y_i - \sum x_i^2 y_i \sum x_i y_i}$$

$$\text{and } \beta_2 = \frac{\sum x_i^2 y_i \sum x_i y_i - \sum x_i y_i \sum x_i^2 y_i}{\sum x_i y_i \sum x_i^2 y_i - \sum x_i^2 y_i \sum x_i y_i}$$

When β_1 and β_2 are known β_0 is obtained from the relation

$$\bar{Y} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \bar{X}_1 + \beta_2 \bar{X}_2 \quad \beta_0 = \bar{Y} - \beta_1 \bar{X}_1 - \beta_2 \bar{X}_2$$

Note For the three variable linear regression equation

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + u, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n \quad \text{where } u_i \sim N(0, \sigma_u^2)$$

we can also find out the values of the regression parameters in another way. This method is described below.

The estimated regression line is given by

$$\hat{Y} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{X}_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 \bar{X}_2 \quad \text{and } \hat{u} = \hat{Y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{X}_1 - \hat{\beta}_2 \bar{X}_2$$

where $\hat{\beta}_0$, $\hat{\beta}_1$ and $\hat{\beta}_2$ are the OLS estimators of β_0 , β_1 and β_2 .

We obtain by subtraction, $\hat{u}_i = \hat{Y}_i - \hat{Y}$

$$= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{X}_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 \bar{X}_2 - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{X}_1 - \hat{\beta}_2 \bar{X}_2$$

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \epsilon$$

$$\text{where } x = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \bar{y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i, \quad \bar{x}_1 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_{1i}, \quad \bar{x}_2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_{2i}$$

$$\text{The error of estimate } e_i = y_i - \hat{y}_i = y_i - (\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1i} + \beta_2 x_{2i})$$

$$\text{and } \text{SSE} = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_{1i} - \beta_2 x_{2i})^2$$

The first order conditions for minimization require

$$\frac{\partial \text{SSE}}{\partial \beta_0} = 2 \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_{1i} - \beta_2 x_{2i}) = 0$$

$$\text{or } \sum_{i=1}^n y_i = n \beta_0 + \beta_1 \sum_{i=1}^n x_{1i} + \beta_2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_{2i} \quad (1)$$

$$\frac{\partial \text{SSE}}{\partial \beta_1} = 2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_{1i} (y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_{1i} - \beta_2 x_{2i}) = 0$$

$$\text{or } \sum_{i=1}^n x_{1i} y_i = \beta_0 \sum_{i=1}^n x_{1i} + \beta_1 \sum_{i=1}^n x_{1i}^2 + \beta_2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_{1i} x_{2i} \quad (2)$$

Now solving equations (1) and (2) by Cramer's rule we have,

$$\beta_1 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n y_i \sum_{i=1}^n x_{1i}^2 - \sum_{i=1}^n x_{1i} y_i \sum_{i=1}^n x_{1i}}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_{1i}^2 - (\sum_{i=1}^n x_{1i})^2 / n}$$

$$\text{and } \beta_2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_{1i} y_i \sum_{i=1}^n x_{1i} x_{2i} - \sum_{i=1}^n x_{1i}^2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_{1i} x_{2i}}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_{1i} x_{2i} - (\sum_{i=1}^n x_{1i}) (\sum_{i=1}^n x_{2i}) / n}$$

When β_1 and β_2 are known, β_0 can be obtained from the relation

$$\bar{y} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \bar{x}_1 + \beta_2 \bar{x}_2 \quad \text{or } \beta_0 = \bar{y} - \beta_1 \bar{x}_1 - \beta_2 \bar{x}_2$$

Example 3.1 Consider the following regression model $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + u$,

where u_i is normally distributed with mean 0 and variance σ_u^2

y	4	7	3	9	7
x_1	2	3	1	4	9
x_2	5	3	2	1	7

Estimate β_0 , β_1 and β_2 (the OLS estimators of β_0 , β_1 and β_2)

Solution Calculations for the estimation of the regression parameters

Table 3.1

Y	X	Y - \bar{Y}		X - \bar{X}		(Y - \bar{Y}) ²		(X - \bar{X}) ²		(Y - \bar{Y})(X - \bar{X})	
		Y - \bar{Y}	X - \bar{X}	Y - \bar{Y}	X - \bar{X}	(Y - \bar{Y}) ²	(X - \bar{X}) ²	(Y - \bar{Y}) ²	(X - \bar{X}) ²	(Y - \bar{Y})(X - \bar{X})	(Y - \bar{Y})(X - \bar{X})
4	1	-1	-1	-1	-1	1	1	1	1	1	1
5	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
6	3	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
7	4	2	2	2	2	4	4	4	4	4	4
8	5	3	3	3	3	9	9	9	9	9	9
9	6	4	4	4	4	16	16	16	16	16	16
10	7	5	5	5	5	25	25	25	25	25	25
11	8	6	6	6	6	36	36	36	36	36	36
12	9	7	7	7	7	49	49	49	49	49	49
13	10	8	8	8	8	64	64	64	64	64	64
14	11	9	9	9	9	81	81	81	81	81	81
15	12	10	10	10	10	100	100	100	100	100	100
16	13	11	11	11	11	121	121	121	121	121	121
17	14	12	12	12	12	144	144	144	144	144	144
18	15	13	13	13	13	169	169	169	169	169	169
19	16	14	14	14	14	196	196	196	196	196	196
20	17	15	15	15	15	225	225	225	225	225	225
21	18	16	16	16	16	256	256	256	256	256	256
22	19	17	17	17	17	289	289	289	289	289	289
23	20	18	18	18	18	324	324	324	324	324	324
24	21	19	19	19	19	361	361	361	361	361	361
25	22	20	20	20	20	400	400	400	400	400	400
26	23	21	21	21	21	441	441	441	441	441	441
27	24	22	22	22	22	484	484	484	484	484	484
28	25	23	23	23	23	529	529	529	529	529	529
29	26	24	24	24	24	576	576	576	576	576	576
30	27	25	25	25	25	625	625	625	625	625	625
31	28	26	26	26	26	676	676	676	676	676	676
32	29	27	27	27	27	729	729	729	729	729	729
33	30	28	28	28	28	784	784	784	784	784	784
34	31	29	29	29	29	841	841	841	841	841	841
35	32	30	30	30	30	900	900	900	900	900	900
36	33	31	31	31	31	961	961	961	961	961	961
37	34	32	32	32	32	1024	1024	1024	1024	1024	1024
38	35	33	33	33	33	1089	1089	1089	1089	1089	1089
39	36	34	34	34	34	1156	1156	1156	1156	1156	1156
40	37	35	35	35	35	1225	1225	1225	1225	1225	1225
41	38	36	36	36	36	1296	1296	1296	1296	1296	1296
42	39	37	37	37	37	1369	1369	1369	1369	1369	1369
43	40	38	38	38	38	1444	1444	1444	1444	1444	1444
44	41	39	39	39	39	1521	1521	1521	1521	1521	1521
45	42	40	40	40	40	1600	1600	1600	1600	1600	1600
46	43	41	41	41	41	1681	1681	1681	1681	1681	1681
47	44	42	42	42	42	1764	1764	1764	1764	1764	1764
48	45	43	43	43	43	1849	1849	1849	1849	1849	1849
49	46	44	44	44	44	1936	1936	1936	1936	1936	1936
50	47	45	45	45	45	2025	2025	2025	2025	2025	2025
51	48	46	46	46	46	2116	2116	2116	2116	2116	2116
52	49	47	47	47	47	2209	2209	2209	2209	2209	2209
53	50	48	48	48	48	2304	2304	2304	2304	2304	2304
54	51	49	49	49	49	2401	2401	2401	2401	2401	2401
55	52	50	50	50	50	2500	2500	2500	2500	2500	2500
56	53	51	51	51	51	2601	2601	2601	2601	2601	2601
57	54	52	52	52	52	2704	2704	2704	2704	2704	2704
58	55	53	53	53	53	2809	2809	2809	2809	2809	2809
59	56	54	54	54	54	2916	2916	2916	2916	2916	2916
60	57	55	55	55	55	3025	3025	3025	3025	3025	3025
61	58	56	56	56	56	3136	3136	3136	3136	3136	3136
62	59	57	57	57	57	3249	3249	3249	3249	3249	3249
63	60	58	58	58	58	3364	3364	3364	3364	3364	3364
64	61	59	59	59	59	3481	3481	3481	3481	3481	3481
65	62	60	60	60	60	3600	3600	3600	3600	3600	3600
66	63	61	61	61	61	3721	3721	3721	3721	3721	3721
67	64	62	62	62	62	3844	3844	3844	3844	3844	3844
68	65	63	63	63	63	3969	3969	3969	3969	3969	3969
69	66	64	64	64	64	4096	4096	4096	4096	4096	4096
70	67	65	65	65	65	4225	4225	4225	4225	4225	4225
71	68	66	66	66	66	4356	4356	4356	4356	4356	4356
72	69	67	67	67	67	4489	4489	4489	4489	4489	4489
73	70	68	68	68	68	4624	4624	4624	4624	4624	4624
74	71	69	69	69	69	4761	4761	4761	4761	4761	4761
75	72	70	70	70	70	4900	4900	4900	4900	4900	4900
76	73	71	71	71	71	5041	5041	5041	5041	5041	5041
77	74	72	72	72	72	5184	5184	5184	5184	5184	5184
78	75	73	73	73	73	5329	5329	5329	5329	5329	5329
79	76	74	74	74	74	5476	5476	5476	5476	5476	5476
80	77	75	75	75	75	5625	5625	5625	5625	5625	5625
81	78	76	76	76	76	5776	5776	5776	5776	5776	5776
82	79	77	77	77	77	5929	5929	5929	5929	5929	5929
83	80	78	78	78	78	6084	6084	6084	6084	6084	6084
84	81	79	79	79	79	6241	6241	6241	6241	6241	6241
85	82	80	80	80	80	6400	6400	6400	6400	6400	6400
86	83	81	81	81	81	6561	6561	6561	6561	6561	6561
87	84	82	82	82	82	6724	6724	6724	6724	6724	6724
88	85	83	83	83	83	6889	6889	6889	6889	6889	6889
89	86	84	84	84	84	7056	7056	7056	7056	7056	7056
90	87	85	85	85	85	7225	7225	7225	7225	7225	7225
91	88	86	86	86	86	7396	7396	7396	7396	7396	7396
92	89	87	87	87	87	7569	7569	7569	7569	7569	7569
93	90	88	88	88	88	7744	7744	7744	7744	7744	7744
94	91	89	89	89	89	7921	7921	7921	7921	7921	7921
95	92	90	90	90	90	8100	8100	8100	8100	8100	8100
96	93	91	91	91	91	8281	8281	8281	8281	8281	8281
97	94	92	92	92	92	8464	8464	8464	8464	8464	8464
98	95	93	93	93	93	8649	8649	8649	8649	8649	8649
99	96	94	94	94	94	8836	8836	8836	8836	8836	8836
100	97	95	95	95	95	9025	9025	9025	9025	9025	9025
101	98	96	96	96	96	9216	9216	9216	9216	9216	9216
102	99	97	97	97	97	9409	9409	9409	9409	9409	9409
103	100	98	98	98	98	9604	9604	9604	9604	9604	9604
104	101	99	99	99	99	9801	9801	9801	9801	9801	9801
105	102	100	100	100	100	10000	10000	10000	10000	10000	10000
106	103	101	101	101	101	10201	10201	10201	10201	10201	10201
107	104	102	102	102	102	10404	10404	10404	10404	10404	10404
108	105	103	103	103	103	10609	10609	10609	10609	10609	10609
109	106	104	104	104	104	10816	10816	10816	10816	10816	10816
110	107	105	105	105	105	11025	11025	11025	11025	11025	11025
111	108	106	106	106	106	11236	11236	11236	11236	11236	11236
112	109	107	107	107	107	11449	11449	11449	11449	11449	11449
113	110	108	108	108	108	11664	11664	11664	11664	11664	11664
114	111	109	109	109	109	11881	11881	11881	11881	11881	11881
115	112	110	110	110	110	12100	12100	12100	12100	12100	12100
116	113	111	111	111	111	12321	12321	12321	12321	12321	12321
117	114	112	112	112	112	12544	12544	12544	12544	12544	12544
118	115	113	113	113	113	12769	12769	12769	12769	12769	12769
119	116	114	114	114	114	12996	12996	12996	12996	12996	12996
120	117	115	115	115	115	13225	13225	132			

$$\frac{\partial \beta_1}{\partial \sigma_X^2} = \frac{\sigma_Y^2}{\sigma_X^2} \left[\frac{r_{12} r_{23} - r_{13} r_{22}}{1 - r_{22}^2} \right]$$

$$\frac{\partial \beta_1}{\partial \sigma_Y^2} = \frac{r_{12} r_{23} - r_{13} r_{22}}{\sigma_X^2 (1 - r_{22}^2)}$$

$$\frac{\partial \beta_1}{\partial r_{12}} = \frac{r_{23} - r_{13} r_{22}}{\sigma_X^2 (1 - r_{22}^2)}$$

$$\frac{\partial \beta_1}{\partial r_{13}} = \frac{r_{23} - r_{13} r_{22}}{\sigma_X^2 (1 - r_{22}^2)}$$

$$\frac{\partial \beta_1}{\partial r_{22}} = \frac{r_{12} r_{23} - r_{13} r_{22}}{\sigma_X^2 (1 - r_{22}^2)^2}$$

Now putting values in the expression of β_1 we get

$$\beta_1 = \frac{\sigma_Y^2}{\sigma_X^2} \left[\frac{r_{12} r_{23} - r_{13} r_{22}}{1 - r_{22}^2} \right]$$

$$= \frac{\sigma_Y^2}{\sigma_X^2} \left[\frac{r_{12} r_{23} - r_{13} r_{22}}{1 - r_{22}^2} \right]$$

$$= \frac{\sigma_Y^2}{\sigma_X^2} \left[\frac{r_{12} r_{23} - r_{13} r_{22}}{1 - r_{22}^2} \right]$$

$$= \frac{\sigma_Y^2}{\sigma_X^2} \left[\frac{r_{12} r_{23} - r_{13} r_{22}}{1 - r_{22}^2} \right]$$

$$\beta_1 = \frac{\sigma_Y}{\sigma_X} \left[\frac{r_{12} r_{23} - r_{13} r_{22}}{1 - r_{22}^2} \right]$$

Property (ii) is the same as we saw for (i).

where the symbols have the usual meaning.

3.2.2 Determination of Variances and Covariances of the Estimators of the Regression Parameters in Three Variable Linear Regression Model

For a three variable linear regression model, we assume the regression equation, the form

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + u \quad (3.2.1)$$

$$u = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \bar{x}_1 + \beta_2 \bar{x}_2 + u \quad \text{where } u = 0$$

$$\text{Now } \bar{y} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \bar{x}_1 + \beta_2 \bar{x}_2 \quad \bar{y} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \bar{x}_1 + \beta_2 \bar{x}_2 + u$$

$$u = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \bar{x}_1 + \beta_2 \bar{x}_2 + u \quad \text{where } u = \bar{y} - \beta_0 - \beta_1 \bar{x}_1 - \beta_2 \bar{x}_2 \quad \text{and } u =$$

be vector-matrix form the set of n equations for $\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2$ can be written as

$$Y = X\beta + u$$

$$\text{where } Y = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix}, X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_{11} & x_{21} \\ 1 & x_{12} & x_{22} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_{1n} & x_{2n} \end{bmatrix}, \beta = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and } u = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ \vdots \\ u_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Now } Y'Y = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 & y_2 & \dots & y_n \\ y_2 & y_1 & \dots & y_n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ y_n & y_1 & \dots & y_n \end{bmatrix} \quad Y'X = \begin{bmatrix} \sum y_i & \sum y_i x_{1i} & \sum y_i x_{2i} \\ \sum x_{1i} y_i & \sum x_{1i}^2 & \sum x_{1i} x_{2i} \\ \sum x_{2i} y_i & \sum x_{1i} x_{2i} & \sum x_{2i}^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Now } E(Y\beta) = E(Y'Y\beta) = E(Y'X\beta) = E(Y'X)\beta = E(Y'X)\beta$$

$$\text{where } E(Y) = \bar{y}, \quad E(X) = \bar{x}_1 \quad \text{and } \bar{\beta} = \beta$$

$$\text{var}(\beta) = \text{cov}(\beta_1, \beta_2) = \sigma_u^2 (X'X)^{-1}$$

$$\text{cov}(\beta_1, \beta_2) = \text{var}(\beta_1)$$

[See Property 4 of OLS estimator vector]

$$= \sigma_u^2 \begin{bmatrix} \sum y_i^2 & \sum y_i x_{1i} \\ \sum y_i x_{1i} & \sum x_{1i}^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \sigma_u^2 \begin{bmatrix} \sum y_i^2 & \sum y_i x_{1i} \\ \sum y_i x_{1i} & \sum x_{1i}^2 \end{bmatrix} = \sigma_u^2 \begin{bmatrix} \sum y_i^2 & \sum y_i x_{1i} \\ \sum y_i x_{1i} & \sum x_{1i}^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_y & \Sigma x_1 & \Sigma x_1 x_2 \\ \Sigma x_1 & \Sigma x_1^2 & \Sigma x_1 x_2 \\ \Sigma x_1 x_2 & \Sigma x_1 x_2 & \Sigma x_2^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{Now, } \begin{pmatrix} \text{var}(\beta_1) & \text{cov}(\beta_1, \beta_2) \\ \text{cov}(\beta_1, \beta_2) & \text{var}(\beta_2) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_y^2 & \Sigma x_1 x_2 \\ \Sigma x_1 x_2 & \Sigma x_2^2 \end{pmatrix}^{-1}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\begin{vmatrix} \Sigma x_1^2 & \Sigma x_1 x_2 \\ \Sigma x_1 x_2 & \Sigma x_2^2 \end{vmatrix}}} \begin{pmatrix} \Sigma x_2^2 & -\Sigma x_1 x_2 \\ -\Sigma x_1 x_2 & \Sigma x_1^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{var}(\beta_1) = \frac{\sigma_y^2 \Sigma x_2^2}{\Sigma x_1^2 \Sigma x_2^2 - (\Sigma x_1 x_2)^2} = \frac{\sigma_y^2 \sigma_{x_2}^2}{n \sigma_{x_1}^2 \sigma_{x_2}^2 (1 - r_{12}^2)}$$

$$\text{var}(\beta_1) = \frac{\sigma_y^2 \sigma_{x_2}^2}{n \sigma_{x_1}^2 \sigma_{x_2}^2 (1 - r_{12}^2)} = \frac{\sigma_y^2}{n \sigma_{x_1}^2 (1 - r_{12}^2)}$$

(Since $\Sigma x_1^2 = \Sigma (x_1 - \bar{x})^2 = n \sigma_{x_1}^2$ and similarly, $\Sigma x_2^2 = n \sigma_{x_2}^2$)

$$\text{and } \Sigma x_1 x_2 = \Sigma (x_1 - \bar{x})(x_2 - \bar{y}) = n \sigma_{x_1 x_2} = n \sigma_{x_1} \sigma_{x_2} r_{12}$$

$$= n \sigma_{x_1} \sigma_{x_2} r_{12} = n \sigma_{x_1} \sigma_{x_2} \sigma_{x_2} r_{12} \text{ as } \frac{\sigma_{x_1 x_2}}{\sigma_{x_1} \sigma_{x_2}} = r_{12}$$

$$\text{Similarly, } \text{var}(\beta_2) = \frac{\sigma_y^2 \Sigma x_1^2}{\Sigma x_1^2 \Sigma x_2^2 - (\Sigma x_1 x_2)^2}$$

$$= \frac{\sigma_y^2 \sigma_{x_1}^2}{n \sigma_{x_1}^2 \sigma_{x_2}^2 (1 - r_{12}^2)} = \frac{\sigma_y^2 \sigma_{x_1}^2}{n \sigma_{x_1}^2 \sigma_{x_2}^2 (1 - r_{12}^2)}$$

$$\text{var}(\beta_2) = \frac{\sigma_y^2}{n \sigma_{x_2}^2 (1 - r_{12}^2)}$$

$$\text{Again, } \text{cov}(\beta_1, \beta_2) = \frac{-\sigma_y^2 \Sigma x_1 x_2}{\Sigma x_1^2 \Sigma x_2^2 - (\Sigma x_1 x_2)^2}$$

$$= \frac{-\sigma_y^2 n \sigma_{x_1} \sigma_{x_2} r_{12}}{n \sigma_{x_1}^2 \sigma_{x_2}^2 (1 - r_{12}^2)} = \frac{-\sigma_y^2 r_{12}}{n \sigma_{x_1} \sigma_{x_2} (1 - r_{12}^2)}$$

$$\text{cov}(\beta_1, \beta_2) = \frac{\sigma_{\beta_1\beta_2}}{\sigma_{\beta_1}^2 \sigma_{\beta_2}^2} \sigma_{\beta_1} \sigma_{\beta_2} = \rho_{\beta_1\beta_2}$$

$$\text{Now, var}(\beta_1 + \beta_2) = \text{var}(\beta_1) + \text{var}(\beta_2) + 2\text{cov}(\beta_1, \beta_2)$$

$$= \frac{\sigma_{\beta_1}^2}{\sigma_{\beta_1}^2 \sigma_{\beta_2}^2} + \frac{\sigma_{\beta_2}^2}{\sigma_{\beta_1}^2 \sigma_{\beta_2}^2} + 2 \frac{\sigma_{\beta_1\beta_2}}{\sigma_{\beta_1}^2 \sigma_{\beta_2}^2} \sigma_{\beta_1} \sigma_{\beta_2}$$

$$\text{and var}(\beta_1 - \beta_2) = \text{var}(\beta_1) + \text{var}(\beta_2) - 2\text{cov}(\beta_1, \beta_2)$$

$$= \frac{\sigma_{\beta_1}^2}{\sigma_{\beta_1}^2 \sigma_{\beta_2}^2} + \frac{\sigma_{\beta_2}^2}{\sigma_{\beta_1}^2 \sigma_{\beta_2}^2} - 2 \frac{\sigma_{\beta_1\beta_2}}{\sigma_{\beta_1}^2 \sigma_{\beta_2}^2} \sigma_{\beta_1} \sigma_{\beta_2}$$

$$\text{since } \bar{Y} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \bar{X}_1 + \beta_2 \bar{X}_2 \quad \beta_0 = \bar{Y} - \beta_1 \bar{X}_1 - \beta_2 \bar{X}_2$$

It can be seen that

$$\text{var}(\beta_0) = \frac{\sigma_{\beta_0}^2}{n} = \bar{Y}^2 \text{var}(\beta_1) + \bar{X}_2^2 \text{var}(\beta_2) - 2\bar{X}_1 \bar{X}_2 \text{cov}(\beta_1, \beta_2) - \bar{X}_1^2 \text{var}(\beta_2)$$

$$\text{cov}(\beta_0, \beta_1) = -\bar{X}_1 \text{var}(\beta_1) + \bar{Y} \text{cov}(\beta_1, \beta_2)$$

$$\text{and cov}(\beta_0, \beta_2) = -\bar{X}_2 \text{cov}(\beta_1, \beta_2) - \bar{X}_2^2 \text{var}(\beta_2)$$

Note In calculating $\text{var}(\beta_0)$, $\text{var}(\beta_1)$, $\text{var}(\beta_2)$ and $\text{cov}(\beta_1, \beta_2)$, $\text{cov}(\beta_0, \beta_1)$ and $\text{cov}(\beta_0, \beta_2)$

if $\sigma_{\beta_0}^2$ is not known it is to be replaced by its unbiased estimator $\sigma_{\beta_0}^2 = 2\sigma^2/n$

Example 3.2. The following table presents data on a sample of five persons randomly drawn from a large firm giving their annual salaries in the thousands of dollars, 17 years of education X_1 and years of experience with the firm they are working with.

Y	30	33	36	34	40
X_1	4	5	6	4	5
X_2	10	8	11	9	12

Assuming a linear regression of the form

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + u_i \quad u_i \sim N(0, \sigma_u^2)$$

(i) find the OLS estimators β_0 , β_1 and β_2

(ii) find the value of R^2

(iii) find the estimated regression equation

(iv) find Σe_i^2

(v) find the values of $\text{var}(\beta_1)$, $\text{var}(\beta_2)$ and $\text{cov}(\beta_1, \beta_2)$

(vi) find the value of $\text{cov}(\beta_1, \beta_2)$

Solution :

Calculation Table 3.2

Y	X_{1i}	X_{2i}	y_i $= Y_i - \bar{Y}$	y_i^2	x_{1i} $= X_{1i} - \bar{X}_1$	x_{1i}^2	x_{2i} $= X_{2i} - \bar{X}_2$	x_{2i}^2	$x_{1i}x_{2i}$	$x_{1i}y_i$ $= x_{1i}(Y_i - \bar{Y})$	$x_{2i}y_i$ $= x_{2i}(Y_i - \bar{Y})$	y_i^2	x_{1i}^2
30	4	10	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
20	3	8	-10	100	2	4	2	4	20	20	4	100	4
36	6	11	6	36	1	1	1	1	6	6	6	36	1
24	4	9	-6	36	1	1	1	1	6	6	6	36	1
40	8	12	10	100	3	9	2	4	20	20	6	100	9
ΣY_i $= 50$	ΣX_{1i} $= 25$	ΣX_{2i} $= 50$	Σy_i $= 0$	Σy_i^2 $= 272$	Σx_{1i} $= 0$	Σx_{1i}^2 $= 16$	Σx_{2i} $= 0$	Σx_{2i}^2 $= 10$	$\Sigma x_{1i}x_{2i}$ $= 60$	$\Sigma x_{1i}y_i$ $= 52$	$\Sigma x_{2i}y_i$ $= 26$	Σy_i^2 $= 272$	Σx_{1i}^2 $= 16$

Here $n = 5$ as five sets of values are given.

$$\text{Now } \bar{Y} = \frac{\Sigma Y_i}{n} = \frac{150}{5} = 30, \quad \bar{X}_1 = \frac{\Sigma X_{1i}}{n} = \frac{25}{5} = 5, \quad \bar{X}_2 = \frac{\Sigma X_{2i}}{n} = \frac{50}{5} = 10$$

We have to find out the BLUE estimators β_{11} , β_1 and β_0 .

We know that $\beta_1 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i \sum_{i=1}^n y_i}{n}}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - \frac{(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i)^2}{n}}$

We now put the values from the calculation table and get

$$\beta_1 = \frac{6.50 - \frac{6.50 \times 60}{10}}{144 - \frac{36^2}{10}} = \frac{4}{6} = 0.66$$

$$\text{Similarly } \beta_2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_{2i} y_i - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_{2i} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i}{n}}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_{2i}^2 - \frac{(\sum_{i=1}^n x_{2i})^2}{n}} = \frac{16.50 - \frac{16 \times 60}{10}}{16 - \frac{64}{10}} = 0.5$$

When β_1 and β_2 are known, β_0 can be obtained from the relation

$$\beta_{11} = \bar{y} - \beta_1 \bar{x}_1 - \beta_2 \bar{x}_2 = 30 - 0.66 \times 36 - 0.5 \times 16$$

$$\beta_0 = 30 - 23.46 = 6.54$$

Thus the BLUE estimators of the parameters are $\beta_0 = 6.54$, $\beta_1 = 0.66$ and $\beta_2 = 0.5$.

(ii) We have to find out the value of product moment correlation coefficient between two explanatory variables x_1 and x_2 , i.e. $r_{x_1 x_2}$.

$$\text{We know that } r_{x_1 x_2} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_{1i} x_{2i} - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_{1i} \sum_{i=1}^n x_{2i}}{n}}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_{1i}^2 - \frac{(\sum_{i=1}^n x_{1i})^2}{n}} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_{2i}^2 - \frac{(\sum_{i=1}^n x_{2i})^2}{n}}}$$

$$= \frac{124 - \frac{36 \times 16}{10}}{\sqrt{144 - \frac{36^2}{10}} \sqrt{16 - \frac{64}{10}}} = \frac{8}{\sqrt{6} \sqrt{10}} = 0.408 = 0.408 \quad r_{x_1 x_2} = 0.408$$

(iii) The estimated regression line is given by

$$\hat{Y} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_{1i} + \hat{\beta}_2 x_{2i}$$

$$\hat{Y}_i = 6.54 + 0.66 x_{1i} + 0.5 x_{2i} \text{ is the estimated regression line equation}$$

(iv) We have to find out the value of E_{x_1}

$$\text{where } E_{x_1} = \sum (x_{1i} - \bar{x}_1)^2 = (x_{11} - \bar{x}_1)^2 + (x_{12} - \bar{x}_1)^2 + \dots + (x_{1n} - \bar{x}_1)^2$$

$$= (x_{11} - \bar{x}_1)^2 + (x_{12} - \bar{x}_1)^2 + \dots + (x_{1n} - \bar{x}_1)^2$$

$$= 6 - 0.25 \times 6 + (0.5)^2 \times 10 = 0.75 \times 10 = 7.5 \quad \therefore E_{x_1} = 7.5$$

In particular when $F = T = 30$, $x_1 = 4$, $x_{21} = 10$ then

$$\hat{Y}_1 = \hat{Y}_T = 6.54 + 0.66 \times 4 + 0.5 \times 10 = 10.34$$

When $X = 1$, $Y = 15$

$$e_1 = Y_1 - \hat{Y}_1 = 15 - 16 = -1$$

When $X = 2$, $Y = 24$

$$e_2 = Y_2 - \hat{Y}_2 = 24 - 24 = 0$$

$$e_3 = Y_3 - \hat{Y}_3 = 40 - 40.75 = -0.75$$

$$e_4 = Y_4 - \hat{Y}_4 = 46 - 46 = 0$$

When $X = 5$, $Y = 8$

$$e_5 = Y_5 - \hat{Y}_5 = 8 - 21.75 = -13.75$$

$$e_6 = Y_6 - \hat{Y}_6 = 16 - 16 = 0$$

When $X = 4$, $Y = 4$

$$e_7 = Y_7 - \hat{Y}_7 = 4 - 24 = -20$$

$$e_8 = Y_8 - \hat{Y}_8 = 24 - 24 = 0$$

When $X = 3$, $Y = 40$

$$e_9 = Y_9 - \hat{Y}_9 = 40 - 21.75 = 18.25$$

$$e_{10} = Y_{10} - \hat{Y}_{10} = 46 - 40.75 = 5.25$$

$$e_{11} = Y_{11} - \hat{Y}_{11} = 40 - 40.75 = -0.75$$

(v) Now we have to calculate the variances of the OLS estimators of the regression parameters, $\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1)$, $\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_2)$ and $\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_3)$.

We know that $\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \frac{\frac{\sum e_i^2}{n-1}}{\sum x_i^2 - \frac{(\sum x_i)^2}{n}}$ Here σ_e^2 is

not known and hence it is replaced by its unbiased estimator $\sigma_e^2 = \frac{\sum e_i^2}{n-1}$

$$\text{Here } \frac{\sum e_i^2}{n-1} = \frac{15}{5-1} = \frac{15}{4} = 3.75$$

$$\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \frac{\frac{\sum e_i^2}{n-1}}{\sum x_i^2 - \frac{(\sum x_i)^2}{n}} = \frac{3.75 \times 10}{16 - 0.75} = 25$$

$$= \frac{75}{3} = 25 \quad \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_2) = 0.4687$$

$$\text{Similarly, } \text{var}(\beta_2) = \frac{1}{n-2} \left(\frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} + \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \right) = 0.0001$$

$$\text{and } \text{cov}(\beta_1, \beta_2) = 0$$

$$\text{and } \text{var}(\beta_1) = \frac{1}{n-2} \left(\frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} + \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \right) = 0.0001$$

$$\text{We find } \sigma_u^2 = \frac{1}{n-2} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 - \frac{(\sum_{i=1}^n y_i)^2}{n} \right) = 0.0001$$

$$\text{with } \sigma_u^2 = 0.0001, \text{ var}(\beta_1) = 0.0001 \text{ and } \text{cov}(\beta_1, \beta_2) = 0.0001 \text{ obtained from (10.15).}$$

$$\text{Thus we have } \text{var}(\beta_1) = \frac{1}{n-2} \left(\frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} + \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \right) = 0.0001$$

$$\text{var}(\beta_2) = 0.0001$$

(iv) We have to find out the value of $\text{cov}(\beta_1, \beta_2)$.

$$\text{Now } \text{cov}(\beta_1, \beta_2) = \frac{1}{n-2} \left(\frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} + \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \right) \text{ Here } \sigma_u^2 \text{ is not known and hence}$$

replaced by its unbiased estimator $\sigma_u^2 = \frac{1}{n-2} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 - \frac{(\sum_{i=1}^n y_i)^2}{n} \right)$

$$\text{cov}(\beta_1, \beta_2) = \frac{0.0001 + 0}{n-2} = 0$$

$$\text{cov}(\beta_1, \beta_2) = 0.0001$$

10.3 Properties of OLS Estimator Vector β

Let $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \beta_2 X_i^2 + \beta_3 X_i^3 + \beta_4 X_i^4 + u_i$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ (Gauss's 1st law)

Regression model

In vector-matrix form the model takes the form $Y = X\beta + u$

$$\text{where } Y = \begin{bmatrix} Y_1 \\ Y_2 \\ \vdots \\ Y_n \end{bmatrix}, X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & X_1 & X_1^2 & X_1^3 & X_1^4 \\ 1 & X_2 & X_2^2 & X_2^3 & X_2^4 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & X_n & X_n^2 & X_n^3 & X_n^4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$Y_{n \times 1}, X_{n \times 5}, \beta_{5 \times 1}, u_{n \times 1}$$

$$\beta = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \\ \beta_3 \\ \beta_4 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and } u = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ \vdots \\ u_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Proposition 2: $\hat{\beta}$ is an unbiased estimator of β

Proof: Let $y = X\beta + u$ where $E(u) = 0$

$X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 & x_2 & \dots & x_k \end{bmatrix}$ where $x_i = (x_{i1}, x_{i2}, \dots, x_{in})$

$y = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$ where $y_i = (y_{i1}, y_{i2}, \dots, y_{ik})$

where $y_i = (y_{i1}, y_{i2}, \dots, y_{ik})$ where $y_{ij} = (y_{ij1}, y_{ij2}, \dots, y_{ijk})$

where $y_{ij} = (y_{ij1}, y_{ij2}, \dots, y_{ijk})$

$y_{ij} = (y_{ij1}, y_{ij2}, \dots, y_{ijk})$ where $y_{ij} = (y_{ij1}, y_{ij2}, \dots, y_{ijk})$

Aggregating $y = X\beta + u$ where $E(u) = 0$

$$y = (X'X)^{-1}X'u \quad E(y) = E(\beta) \quad E(u) = 0$$

$$E(y) = E(\beta) \quad \text{where } E(y) = E(\beta) \quad E(u) = 0$$

This shows that the OLS estimator of β is an unbiased estimator of β where $E(u) = 0$

$$\begin{aligned} E(\beta_0) &= \beta_0 & E(\beta_1) &= \beta_1 \\ E(\beta_2) &= \beta_2 & E(\beta_3) &= \beta_3 \\ E(\beta_4) &= \beta_4 & E(\beta_5) &= \beta_5 \\ E(\beta_6) &= \beta_6 & E(\beta_7) &= \beta_7 \\ E(\beta_8) &= \beta_8 & E(\beta_9) &= \beta_9 \end{aligned}$$

This implies that OLS estimator of each parameter is an unbiased estimator of β where $E(u) = 0$

$$\text{In this model we have } \beta = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \\ \beta_3 \\ \beta_4 \\ \beta_5 \\ \beta_6 \\ \beta_7 \\ \beta_8 \\ \beta_9 \end{bmatrix} \quad \beta = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \\ \beta_3 \\ \beta_4 \\ \beta_5 \\ \beta_6 \\ \beta_7 \\ \beta_8 \\ \beta_9 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{and } E(\beta) = \begin{bmatrix} E(\beta_0) \\ E(\beta_1) \\ E(\beta_2) \\ E(\beta_3) \\ E(\beta_4) \\ E(\beta_5) \\ E(\beta_6) \\ E(\beta_7) \\ E(\beta_8) \\ E(\beta_9) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \\ \beta_3 \\ \beta_4 \\ \beta_5 \\ \beta_6 \\ \beta_7 \\ \beta_8 \\ \beta_9 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$E(\hat{\beta}) = \beta \quad \text{where } E(\beta_0) = \beta_0, \quad E(\beta_1) = \beta_1, \quad E(\beta_2) = \beta_2$$

Property 2 The Dispersion matrix or variance-covariance matrix of $\hat{\beta}$ is given by

$$\sigma_u^2 (X'X)^{-1}$$

Proof By definition, dispersion matrix or variance-covariance matrix of $\hat{\beta}$ is

$$\text{Var}(\hat{\beta}) = E[(\hat{\beta} - \beta)(\hat{\beta} - \beta)'] \quad \text{where } E(\hat{\beta}) = \beta$$

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\beta} &= (Y_0 \quad Y_1)' & E(\hat{\beta}) &= E(Y_0 \quad Y_1)' = (E Y_0 \quad E Y_1)' & E(Y_0 \quad Y_1)' &= (\beta_0 \quad \beta_1)' \\ \hat{\beta} &= (Y_0 \quad Y_1)' & E(\hat{\beta}) &= E(Y_0 \quad Y_1)' & E(Y_0 \quad Y_1)' &= (\beta_0 \quad \beta_1)' \end{aligned}$$

$$E(Y_0 \quad Y_1)' = E(Y_0 \quad Y_1)' = E(Y_0 \quad Y_1)' = (\beta_0 \quad \beta_1)'$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_0) &= \text{cov}(\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_0) & \text{cov}(\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1) & \\ \text{cov}(\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1) &= \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) & \text{cov}(\hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_0) & \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{cov}(\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1) = \text{cov}(\hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_0) = \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1)$$

Here the diagonal terms are variances and non-diagonal terms are covariances. It is also called variance-covariance matrix.

$$\begin{aligned} D(\hat{\beta}) &= E[(\hat{\beta} - \beta)(\hat{\beta} - \beta)'] \\ &= E[(Y'X)^{-1}X'u][X'u]' \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= E[(X'X)^{-1}X'u][X'u]' \\ &= (X'X)^{-1}X'u[X'u]' \\ &= (X'X)^{-1}X'u[X'u]' \\ &= (X'X)^{-1}X'u[X'u]' \end{aligned}$$

$$D(\hat{\beta}) = \sigma_u^2 (X'X)^{-1}$$

$$\text{Since } \hat{\beta} = \beta + (X'X)^{-1}X'u$$

$$\hat{\beta} - \beta = (X'X)^{-1}X'u$$

$$\text{Since } D(u)$$

$$= E[u - E(u)][u - E(u)]'$$

$$= E(uu') \text{ as } E(u) = 0$$

$$= \sigma_u^2 I_n \text{ (See 1.1 (ii))}$$

$$\text{where } I_n = \text{identity matrix of order } n$$

$$(K + 1) \times (K + 1)$$

Proceeding in the same way we can also derive the result $D(\hat{\beta}) = \sigma_u^2 (X'X)^{-1}$ for a regression model with two explanatory variables.

$$\text{i.e. } Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1t} + \beta_2 X_{2t} + u_t, \quad t = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n$$

Property 3. j th element of $\hat{\beta}$ is the best linear unbiased estimator of the j th element of β . Alternatively, $\hat{\beta}$ is the Best Linear Unbiased Estimator (BLUE) of β .

Proof Since, $\hat{\beta} = (X'X)^{-1}X'Y$

$$C' = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$C'X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 & x_2 & \dots & x_k \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{bmatrix} = C'$$

$$\text{Let us let } \beta_0^* = C'Y \text{ where } C' = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$Y = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 & y_2 & y_3 & \dots & y_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$n \times 1$$

Now we have to find out the conditions under which β_0^* is an unbiased estimator of β_0 .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now, } \beta_0^* &= C'Y = C'(X\beta + u) \text{ since } Y = X\beta + u \\ &= C'X\beta + C'u \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} E(\beta_0^*) &= E[C'X\beta + C'u] \\ &= C'X\beta + 0 = C'X\beta \quad [E(u) = 0_{n \times 1}] \end{aligned}$$

$$E(\beta_0^*) = C'X\beta$$

$$\text{Now } E(\beta_0^*) = \beta_0 \text{ if } C'X = e_1$$

$$\text{Let } e_1\beta = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_k \end{bmatrix} = \beta_0$$

This shows that β_0^* is an unbiased estimator of β_0 . The condition for β_0^* to be an unbiased estimator of β_0 is given by $C'X = e_1$.

$$\text{Again, } \beta_0^* = C'X\beta + C'u$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= e_1\beta + C'u = \beta_0 + \begin{bmatrix} C_1 & C_2 & \dots & C_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ \vdots \\ u_n \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \beta_0 + \begin{bmatrix} C_1 & C_2 & \dots & C_n \end{bmatrix} u \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{or } \beta_0^* = \beta_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n u_i \quad \beta_1^* = \beta_1 + \sum_{i=1}^n u_i$$

$$\text{Now } \text{var}(\beta_0^*) = E(\beta_0^* - \beta_0)^2 = E\left(\sum_{i=1}^n u_i\right)^2 = \beta_0$$

$$E\left(\sum_{i=1}^n u_i\right)^2 = \sigma_u^2 \sum_{i=1}^n 1 = E(u^2) = \sigma_u^2$$

$$\text{var}(\beta_0^*) = \sigma_u^2 \sum_{i=1}^n 1$$

Now we have to minimise $\text{var}(\beta_0^*)$ subject to the condition that through the choice of the vector C . In other words we have to minimise $\sum_{i=1}^n C_i^2$ subject to the condition $C'X = e_1$

For the sake of simplicity we put $\sigma_u^2 = \frac{1}{2}$

The Lagrangian is given by,

$$L = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n C_i^2 - \lambda(C'X - e_1)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} C_1 \\ C_2 \\ \vdots \\ C_n \end{bmatrix}$$

where $\lambda =$ is the vector of Lagrangian multipliers

$$\lambda = (\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n)$$

$$L = \frac{1}{2} C' C - \lambda(C'X - e_1)$$

Now differentiating it with respect to C we get

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial C} = C - X\lambda = 0_{n \times 1} \quad \text{a null column vector where } C = (C_1, C_2, \dots, C_n)$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \lambda} = C'X - e_1 = 0_{1 \times (K+1)} \quad \text{a null row vector}$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \lambda} = C'X - e_1 = 0_{1 \times (K+1)} \quad \text{a null row vector}$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \lambda} = C'X - e_1 = 0_{1 \times (K+1)}$$

$$\text{or } C = X\lambda \quad \text{i.e. } C' = \lambda'X' \quad \text{and } C'X = \lambda'X'X$$

$$\text{Again } \frac{\partial L}{\partial \lambda} = C'X - e_1 = 0_{1 \times (K+1)} \quad e_1 = C'X$$

$$e_1 = C'X = \lambda'X'X \quad \text{or } \lambda'X'X = e_1$$

$$\text{or } \lambda' = e_1(X'X)^{-1} \quad C' = \lambda'X' = e_1(X'X)^{-1}X'$$

$$S_0 = \beta_0^* + \beta_1^* x_1 + \beta_2^* x_2 + \dots + \beta_k^* x_k$$

 β_0 β

$$S_0 = \beta_0^* + \beta_1^* x_1 + \beta_2^* x_2 + \dots + \beta_k^* x_k$$

 β_1

Now, it is proved that under the condition that β^* is an unbiased estimator of β

variance of $\beta_0^* = E \text{var}(\beta_0^*)$ is minimum when $\beta_0^* = \beta_0$

Applying the same mathematical technique it can be proved that

$$\text{var}(\beta_1^*) \text{ is minimum when } \beta_1^* = \beta_1$$

$$\text{var}(\beta_2^*) \text{ is minimum when } \beta_2^* = \beta_2$$

$$\text{var}(\beta_k^*) \text{ is minimum when } \beta_k^* = \beta_k$$

It can be proved that all these estimators are the best linear unbiased estimators of the regression parameters. i.e. $\hat{\beta}$ is the BLUE of β . This is known as the **GAUSS-MARKOFF THEOREM**.

In case of three variable linear regression model, i.e. $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \mu$, $k = 2$, $n = 30$ we can prove that $\hat{\beta}$ is the BLUE of β where

$$\hat{\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} \hat{\beta}_0 \\ \hat{\beta}_1 \\ \hat{\beta}_2 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \hat{\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Property 4 Unbiased estimator of σ^2 is $s^2 = \frac{e'e}{(K-1)} = \frac{\sum e_i^2}{n - (K-1)}$ where

K = number of explanatory variables and $(K+1)$ = number of parameters including the constant intercept term.

Proof Since $Y = X\beta + \mu$, $Y = Y^0$ and $y = y + e$

$$\text{or } e = Y - Y^0 \text{ or } e = Y - X\beta \text{ or } e = Y - X\hat{\beta}$$

$$\text{Now } e'e = (Y - X\hat{\beta})'(Y - X\hat{\beta})$$

$$= [Y' - X'(X'X)^{-1}X'] [Y - X(X'X)^{-1}X'Y] \text{ since } \hat{\beta} = (X'X)^{-1}X'Y$$

$$= [Y' - Y'X(X'X)^{-1}X'] [Y - X(X'X)^{-1}X'Y]$$

$$= Y'[I - X(X'X)^{-1}X'] [Y - X(X'X)^{-1}X'Y]$$

$$= Y'MY \text{ where } M = I - X(X'X)^{-1}X'$$

$$e' e = (Y - MY)'(Y - MY)$$

$$= Y'Y - Y'MY - Y'MY + Y'MY$$

$$= Y'Y - 4Y'Y + Y'Y$$

$$= Y'Y - 2Y'Y + Y'Y$$

Now if we put $M = I - (Y'Y)^{-1}Y'$ then

$$Y'MY = Y'(I - (Y'Y)^{-1}Y')Y = Y'Y - Y'Y = 0$$

$$\text{and hence } e'e = Y'Y - 2Y'Y + Y'Y = Y'Y - Y'Y = 0$$

$$= Y'Y - Y'Y = 0 \quad \sum_{i=1}^n u_i^2 = Y'Y - Y'Y = 0$$

$$E(e'e) = E(Y'Y - 2Y'Y + Y'Y) = E(Y'Y) - 2E(Y'Y) + E(Y'Y) = E(Y'Y) - E(Y'Y) = 0$$

$$= n\sigma_u^2 - \sigma_u^2(K-1) \quad (\text{Here } \text{trace}(Y'Y) = K-1)$$

$$E(e'e) = n\sigma_u^2(K-1)$$

$$\text{or } E\left(\frac{e'e}{n(K-1)}\right) = \sigma_u^2 \quad \text{or } E\left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n u_i^2}{n(K-1)}\right) = \sigma_u^2$$

This proves that $\frac{e'e}{n(K-1)} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n u_i^2}{n(K-1)}$ is the unbiased estimator of σ_u^2 .

In particular for a linear regression model with two explanatory variables

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + u_i$$

$$\text{we have } E\left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n u_i^2}{n-3}\right) = \sigma_u^2 \quad \text{or } E(\hat{\sigma}_u^2) = \sigma_u^2 \quad \text{where } \hat{\sigma}_u^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n u_i^2}{n-3} \quad \text{and } K = 3$$

3.4. MLE of β and σ_u^2 in the Multiple Regression Model

Let $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + \dots + \beta_K X_{Ki} + u_i$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ be the equation of the general linear regression model. In vector matrix form the set of n equations can be written as, $Y = X\beta + u$

$$\text{where } Y = \begin{bmatrix} Y_1 \\ Y_2 \\ \vdots \\ Y_n \end{bmatrix} \quad X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & X_{11} & X_{21} & \dots & X_{K1} \\ 1 & X_{12} & X_{22} & \dots & X_{K2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & X_{1n} & X_{2n} & \dots & X_{Kn} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\beta = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_K \end{bmatrix} \quad u = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ \vdots \\ u_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$K = (K+1) \times 1$$

We have to find the joint probability density function of the

sample mean \bar{x} and sample variance s^2 when the population is normal.

We also have to find the joint probability density function of the

sample mean \bar{x} and sample variance s^2 when the population is normal and the parameters μ and σ^2 are unknown.

Since u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n are independent at any point x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n we have

Let N_1, N_2, \dots, N_n then

$$f(u) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{u^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

$$\text{So, } f(u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{u_i^2}{2\sigma^2}} = \frac{1}{(\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma)^n} e^{-\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n u_i^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

This is the likelihood function of the parameters $\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_k$ and σ^2 denoted by

$$L(\beta', \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{(\sqrt{2\pi})^n \sigma^n} e^{-\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n u_i^2}{2\sigma^2}} \text{ where } \beta' = (\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_k)'$$

$$\text{Now } \log L = -\frac{n}{2} \log 2\pi - n \log \sigma - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n u_i^2$$

Now to obtain the MLE of the parameters $\log L$ is to be maximised with respect to the parameters.

(a) To obtain the MLE of β we have to maximise $\log L$ with respect to β which is equivalent to minimization of $\sum_{i=1}^n u_i^2$ with respect to β .

So, we have to minimise $\sum_{i=1}^n u_i^2$ through the choice of β

$$\text{Since } u = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ \vdots \\ u_n \end{bmatrix}_{n \times 1} \quad u' = [u_1 \ u_2 \ \dots \ u_n]_{1 \times n}$$

$$u'u = \sum_{i=1}^n u_i^2$$

We have that $\hat{\theta} = \hat{\theta}_0 + \delta$ or $\delta = \hat{\theta} - \hat{\theta}_0$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial \log f(\theta)}{\partial \theta} = 0$$

$$n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial \log f(\theta)}{\partial \theta} = 0$$

$$n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial \log f(\theta)}{\partial \theta} = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{\partial \log f(\theta)}{\partial \theta} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial \log f(\theta)}{\partial \theta} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial \log f(\theta)}{\partial \theta} = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{\partial \log f(\theta)}{\partial \theta} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial \log f(\theta)}{\partial \theta} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial \log f(\theta)}{\partial \theta} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial \log f(\theta)}{\partial \theta} = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{\partial \log f(\theta)}{\partial \theta} = 0$$

It is clear that the asymptotic distribution of the MLE is normal

$$\frac{\partial \log f(\theta)}{\partial \theta} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial \log f(\theta)}{\partial \theta} = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{\partial \log f(\theta)}{\partial \theta} = 0$$

So, MLE of θ is asymptotically normal with the variance-covariance matrix $V(\theta)$ as θ approaches θ_0 .

So, we have to find the MLE of θ .

In order to derive the MLE of θ , we have to maximize

$$\log L(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log f(\theta; x_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log f(\theta; x_i)$$

$$\text{Now, } \log L(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log f(\theta; x_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log f(\theta; x_i)$$

$$\frac{\partial \log L(\theta)}{\partial \theta} = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial \log f(\theta; x_i)}{\partial \theta} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial \log L(\theta)}{\partial \theta} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial \log L(\theta)}{\partial \theta} = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{\partial \log L(\theta)}{\partial \theta} = 0$$

Since it is proved that MLE of θ is asymptotically normal

$$\log L(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log f(\theta; x_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log f(\theta; x_i)$$

$$\frac{\partial \log L(\theta)}{\partial \theta} = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial \log f(\theta; x_i)}{\partial \theta} = 0 \quad \text{(Since } \frac{\partial \log f(\theta; x_i)}{\partial \theta} = 0 \text{)}$$

$$\text{and } \frac{\partial^2 \log L(\theta)}{\partial \theta^2} = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial^2 \log f(\theta; x_i)}{\partial \theta^2}$$

$$n \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2$$

$$n \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 = n \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2 + n \sum_{i=1}^n \bar{y}^2$$

It should be noted that MLE of σ_u^2 is not an unbiased estimator of σ_u^2 , but a consistent or asymptotically unbiased estimator of σ_u^2 .

$$\text{Since MLE of } \sigma_u^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2}{n}$$

$$N_{\text{ML}} \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 / n = \frac{(K+1)}{n} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2}{(K+1)} = \left(1 - \frac{K+1}{n}\right) \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2}{K}$$

$$\text{or } \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 / n = \left(1 - \frac{K+1}{n}\right) \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2}{(K+1)}$$

$$\text{As } n \rightarrow \infty, \frac{(K+1)}{n} \rightarrow 0 \text{ and hence}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 / n \rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 / (K+1) \text{ where } \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 / (K+1) \text{ is an unbiased estimator of } \sigma_u^2$$

This proves that MLE of σ_u^2 i.e. $\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 / n$ is an asymptotically unbiased or consistent estimator of σ_u^2 in a three variable (with two explanatory variables, i.e.,

when $K = 2$) linear regression model we have MLE of $\sigma_u^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 / n$ and unbiased

$$\text{estimator of } \sigma_u^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 / (n - 3)$$

3.5 Expression of Multiple Correlation Coefficient in the General Linear Regression Model

Let $\hat{Y}_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + \dots + \beta_k X_{ki} + u_i$ be the regression line where $\sum_{i=1}^n u_i = 0$.

Here Y is regressed on $X = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_k)$. So the multiple correlation coefficient, denoted by the symbol,

$$R^2 = \frac{\text{var}(\hat{Y})}{\text{var}(Y)} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y})^2 / (n-1)}{\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2 / (n-1)} \quad \text{Since } Y = \bar{Y} + (Y - \bar{Y})$$

$$= \frac{\sum \hat{Y}_i^2 - n\bar{Y}^2}{\sum Y_i^2 - n\bar{Y}^2} = \frac{\hat{Y}'Y - n\bar{Y}^2}{Y'Y - n\bar{Y}^2}$$

$$= \frac{\beta'XY - n\bar{Y}^2}{Y'Y - n\bar{Y}^2} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{where } \hat{Y} = X\hat{\beta} \text{ and } Y = \bar{Y} + (Y - \bar{Y}) \end{array} \right.$$

$$= \frac{\beta'X(Y - \bar{Y})}{Y'Y - n\bar{Y}^2} = \frac{\beta'X(Y - \bar{Y})}{Y'Y - n\bar{Y}^2}$$

$$\text{where } \hat{\beta} = (X'X)^{-1}X'Y \quad (X'X)^{-1} = (X'X)^{-1} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \hat{\beta} = (X'X)^{-1}X'Y \\ \hat{Y} = X\hat{\beta} \end{array} \right.$$

3.6 The Multiple Coefficient of Determination R^2 and the Multiple Coefficient of Correlation in the Three-Variable Linear Regression Model

In the two variable case we have seen that R^2 (or r^2) measures the goodness of fit of the regression equation $\hat{Y} = \alpha + \beta X + u$ ($\alpha, \beta \neq 0$) that is it gives the proportion or percentage of the total variation in the dependent variable Y explained by the single explanatory variable X . This notion of R^2 can be easily extended to regression models containing more than two variables. Thus in the three variable model we would like to know the proportion of the variation in Y explained by the variables X_1 and X_2 jointly.

This quantity that gives this information is known as the Multiple Coefficient of Determination and is denoted by $R_{Y, X_1 X_2}^2$ or simply R^2 and conceptually it is similar to r^2 .

The estimated three variable regression line ($\hat{Y}_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + u_i$, $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$) is given by $\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_{1i} + \hat{\beta}_2 X_{2i}$ where \hat{Y}_i is the estimated value of Y from the fitted regression line and is an estimator of true $E(Y, X_1, X_2)$ and $\bar{Y} = \bar{Y}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{X}_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 \bar{X}_2$.

Taking deviations from means we have

$$\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y} = \hat{\beta}_1 X_{1i} + \hat{\beta}_2 X_{2i} - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{X}_1 - \hat{\beta}_2 \bar{X}_2$$

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1i} + \beta_2 x_{2i} + e_i$$

$$y_i = \hat{y}_i + e_i$$

$$\text{where } y = \bar{y}, \bar{y} = \bar{y}, e = y - \bar{y} \text{ and } e = y - \hat{y}$$

$$\text{Now errors of estimate } e = y_i - \hat{y}_i = y_i - (\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1i} + \beta_2 x_{2i})$$

$$= e_i$$

$$\text{Now } \Sigma e^2 = \Sigma y^2 + \Sigma e^2 + 2 \Sigma y e$$

$$\text{or } \Sigma y^2 = \Sigma \hat{y}^2 + \Sigma e^2 \quad \Sigma y e = 0$$

$$\text{i.e. TSS = ESS + RSS}$$

where TSS = Total Sum of Squares

ESS = Explained Sum of Squares

RSS = Residual Sum of Squares

$$\text{Now by definition, } R^2_{y \text{ vs } x} = R^2 = \frac{\Sigma \hat{y}^2}{\Sigma y^2} = \frac{\text{ESS}}{\text{TSS}}$$

$$\begin{aligned} R^2 &= \frac{\Sigma(\hat{y}_i - \bar{y})^2}{\Sigma(y_i - \bar{y})^2} = \frac{\Sigma \hat{y}_i^2 - \Sigma y_i^2}{\Sigma y_i^2} \\ &= 1 - \frac{\Sigma e_i^2}{\Sigma y_i^2} = 1 - \frac{\text{RSS}}{\text{TSS}} \end{aligned}$$

Since

$$\Sigma \hat{y}_i^2 = \Sigma y_i^2 + \Sigma e_i^2$$

$$\Sigma y_i^2 = \Sigma \hat{y}_i^2 - \Sigma e_i^2$$

$$\text{Since } e_i = y_i - \hat{y}_i, \quad \Sigma e_i^2 = \Sigma (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

$$= \Sigma e_i (y_i - \hat{y}_i) = \Sigma e_i (y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_{1i} - \beta_2 x_{2i}) \text{ as } \hat{y} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2$$

$$= \Sigma e_i y_i - \beta_0 \Sigma e_i - \beta_1 \Sigma e_i x_{1i} - \beta_2 \Sigma e_i x_{2i}$$

$$= \Sigma e_i y_i$$

$$= \Sigma (y_i - \hat{y}_i) y_i$$

$$= \Sigma y_i (y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_{1i} - \beta_2 x_{2i})$$

$$= \Sigma y_i^2 - \beta_0 \Sigma y_i - \beta_1 \Sigma x_{1i} y_i - \beta_2 \Sigma x_{2i} y_i$$

$$\Sigma e_i^2 = \Sigma y_i^2 - \beta_0 \Sigma y_i - \beta_1 \Sigma x_{1i} y_i - \beta_2 \Sigma x_{2i} y_i$$

$$\text{i.e., RSS} = \Sigma y_i^2 - \beta_0 \Sigma y_i - \beta_1 \Sigma x_{1i} y_i - \beta_2 \Sigma x_{2i} y_i$$

$$\text{since } \Sigma y_i^2 = \text{TSS}$$

$$\text{ESS} = \beta_0 \Sigma y_i + \beta_1 \Sigma x_{1i} y_i + \beta_2 \Sigma x_{2i} y_i$$

$$R^2_{y \text{ vs } x_1, x_2} = \frac{\text{ESS}}{\text{TSS}} = \frac{\beta_0 \Sigma y_i + \beta_1 \Sigma x_{1i} y_i + \beta_2 \Sigma x_{2i} y_i}{\Sigma y_i^2}$$

$$\text{Since } \Sigma x_{1i} e_i = 0, \quad \Sigma x_{2i} e_i = 0$$

$$\text{where } \Sigma x_{1i} (y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_{1i} - \beta_2 x_{2i})$$

$$= \Sigma x_{1i} y_i - \beta_0 \Sigma x_{1i} - \beta_1 \Sigma x_{1i}^2 - \beta_2 \Sigma x_{1i} x_{2i} = 0$$

which follows from the first normal equation.

$$\text{Similarly } \Sigma x_{2i} e_i = 0$$

Example 3.3 (continued)

- (i) find the value of R^2
 (ii) Find the fitted regression equation
 (iii) Following Example 3.2,
 (iv) find the value of R^2

\hat{y} be the fitted regression equation for any independent

Solution

(i) From the above given data it is known that $n = 27$ and

$\sum y_i = 100$. Then we have $\sum x_i = 4$, $\sum x_i^2 = 16$, $\sum y_i^2 = 100$ and $\sum x_i y_i = 16$

We know that $R^2 = \frac{SSR}{SST} = \frac{\beta_1 \sum x_i y_i + \beta_2 \sum x_i^2 y_i}{\sum y_i^2}$

$$= \frac{16\beta_1 + 16\beta_2}{100}$$

$$R^2 = 0.76$$

The estimated regression equation is

$$\hat{y} = 0.1 + 0.11x$$

(ii) $R^2 = 0.76$ implies that 76% of the variation in salary is explained by

(iii) From the above given data of Example 3.2

$$\sum y_i^2 = 100, \quad \sum x_i^2 = 16, \quad \sum x_i y_i = 16$$

Further we obtained $\beta_1 = 0.24$ and $\beta_2 = 0.5$

We then get $R^2 = 0.76$ and $R = 0.87$

$$R^2 = \frac{4.23}{5.5} = 0.7691 \quad R = \sqrt{0.7691} = 0.8769$$

$$R = 0.8769$$

(iv) Thus the estimated regression equation is

$$\hat{y}_i = 22.75 + 0.5x_i - 0.5x_i^2, \quad R^2 = 0.945$$

This equation suggests that years of experience with the firm is far more important than years of education (which actually has a negative effect). This equation says that we can predict that one more year of experience added allowing for same education for holding it constant, results in an annual increase in salary of \$5500. This means that if we consider the persons with the same level of education the one with one more year of experience can be expected to have a higher salary of \$5500. Similarly, we consider two persons with the same experience the one with an education of one more year can be expected to have a lower annual salary of \$1,500.

Here $R^2 = 0.945$ implies that out of 94.5% variation in salary of the employee the variation can be explained by the two explanatory variables X_1 and X_2 jointly.

17 R^2 and the Adjusted R^2

1. R^2 is a measure of the proportion of the total variation in the dependent variable that is explained by the independent variables.
2. R^2 is always non-negative and is bounded by 0 and 1.
3. R^2 is a function of the sample size n and the number of independent variables k .
4. R^2 will not decrease as k increases.

Now $RSS = \sum e_i^2$ is the residual sum of squares. The RSS is, however, dependent on the number of independent variables k . As k increases, the RSS will not increase, hence R^2 will increase. This is a problem with regression models with the same dependent variable but different numbers of independent variables. One should be very wary of choosing the model with the highest R^2 . To compare two R^2 terms, one must take into account the number of variables present in the model. This can be done readily if we consider the adjusted R^2 in determination.

$$\bar{R}^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum e_i^2}{\sum y_i^2} \cdot \frac{(n - (K + 1))}{(n - 1)}$$

where K = number of explanatory variables and $K + 1$ = number of parameters in the model including the intercept term.

In a three variable linear regression model $K = 2$ so $n - K - 1 = n - 3$.

The \bar{R}^2 thus defined is known as adjusted R^2 denoted by \bar{R}^2 . The term adjusted means adjusted for the degrees of freedom (d.f.) associated with the error sum of squares of $\sum e_i^2$ and $\sum y_i^2$.

$RSS = \sum e_i^2$ has $n - (K + 1)$ degrees of freedom in a model involving $(K + 1)$ parameters including the intercept term and $TSS = \sum y_i^2$ has $n - 1$ degrees of freedom.

Thus the adjusted R^2 can also be written as

$$\bar{R}^2 = \frac{\hat{\sigma}_u^2}{S_y^2}$$

It is thus clear that \bar{R}^2 and R^2 are related and we can express the relation as follows

where $\hat{\sigma}_u^2 = \sum e_i^2 / (n - (K + 1))$ is the residual variance and unbiased estimator of true σ_u^2 and

$$S_y^2 = \frac{1}{n - 1} \sum (y_i - \bar{y})^2 = \frac{1}{n - 1} \sum y_i^2$$

sample variance of y

$$\sum y_i^2 = (n - 1) S_y^2 \text{ and } \sum e_i^2 = (n - 1) S_y^2$$

$$\text{Since } R^2 = \frac{\text{var}(\hat{Y})}{\text{var}(Y)} \quad \text{and } R^2 = \frac{\text{var}(\hat{Y})}{\text{var}(Y)}$$

$$\frac{\text{var}(\hat{Y})}{\text{var}(Y)} = \frac{\text{var}(\hat{Y})}{\text{var}(Y)}$$

$$\frac{\text{var}(\hat{Y})}{\text{var}(Y)} = \frac{\text{var}(\hat{Y})}{\text{var}(Y)}$$

It is also true that the adjusted R^2 is always less than or equal to R^2 and

$$\bar{R}^2 = R^2 - \frac{k}{n}$$

where k is the number of variables in the model. As k increases, the adjusted R^2 decreases. In fact, if k is too large, the adjusted R^2 can be negative. Although R^2 is never less than zero, \bar{R}^2 can be negative in an application. Its value is then set at zero.

It should be noted that \bar{R}^2 is a larger \bar{R}^2 and R^2 is a larger R^2 for a given set of data. The adjusted R^2 is a better measure of the proportion of the variation in the dependent variable explained by the independent variables. It is a larger measure of the variation in the dependent variable explained by the independent variables. It can be much smaller than R^2 and can even assume negative values in which case \bar{R}^2 should be interpreted as being equal to zero.

Note: Comparing Two R^2 values

It is crucial to note that in comparing two models on the basis of the coefficient of determination, whether adjusted or not, the sample size n and the dependent variable must be the same. The explanatory variables may take any form. Thus, in the model

$$\log Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + \epsilon_i \quad \text{--- (A)}$$

$$\text{and } Y_i = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 X_{1i} + \alpha_2 X_{2i} + \epsilon_i \quad \text{--- (B)}$$

the computed R^2 terms cannot be compared. The reason is that by definition, R^2 measures the proportion of the variation in the dependent variable explained by the explanatory variables. Therefore in equation (A), R^2 measures the proportion of the variation in $\log Y$ explained by X_1 and X_2 , whereas in equation (B), it measures the proportion of the variation in Y and hence the two are not the same thing. A change in $\log Y$ gives a relative or proportional change in Y whereas a change in Y gives an absolute change. Therefore $\text{var}(\log Y) / \text{var}(Y)$ is not equal to $\text{var}(\log Y) / \text{var}(Y)$.

Thus the two coefficients of determination are not the same.

Example 3.1. a) Following Example 3.1 find the value of Adjusted R^2 .

b) Following Example 3.2 find the value of Adjusted R^2 .

Solution. (a) We know that in a three-variable linear regression model, adjusted R^2 is denoted by

$$\bar{R}^2 = 1 - (1 - R^2) \frac{n}{n - k} \quad \text{Here we see that following data of Example 3.1, } R^2 = 0.85$$

$$n = 5$$

the value of adjusted $R^2 = \bar{R}^2 = 0.93$

the new hat $\bar{R}^2 = R^2 = 0.93$ as the previous one as $n = 10$ and $k = 1$

and following Example 3, the adjusted $R^2 = \bar{R}^2 = 0.93$ and $n = 10$

$$\bar{R}^2 = 1 - \frac{R^2}{n} = 1 - \frac{0.93}{10} = 0.907$$

$$1(0.93) = 0.907$$

Adjusted $R^2 = \bar{R}^2 = 0.907$ which is smaller than unadjusted $R^2 = 0.93$

The value of adjusted $R^2 = \bar{R}^2$ can also be obtained by using the formula

$$\bar{R}^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2}$$

From Example 3, we have obtained

$$\sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 = 9, \quad \sum_{i=1}^n y_i = 2.72, \quad n = 5, \quad K = 2, \quad K + 1 = 3$$

$$\bar{R}^2 = 1 - \frac{\frac{1}{5} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 - \frac{(\sum_{i=1}^n y_i)^2}{5}}{\frac{1}{5} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 - \frac{(\sum_{i=1}^n y_i)^2}{5}} = \frac{0.75}{0.8} = 0.9375 = 0.938$$

$$\bar{R}^2 = 0.938$$

3.8. Partial Correlation Coefficients and the Coefficient of Partial Determination

In the simple correlation analysis the coefficient of correlation r is used as a measure of the degree of linear association between two variables X and Y

$$Y = \alpha + \beta X + u, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

For three variable linear regression model $[Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + u_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, n]$ we can compute three correlation coefficients r_{YX_1} , r_{YX_2} (correlation coefficient between Y and X_1), r_{YX_2} , r_{YX_3} (correlation coefficient between Y and X_2) and $r_{X_1 X_2} = r_{X_2 X_1}$ (correlation coefficient between X_1 and X_2)

These correlation coefficients are called gross or simple correlation coefficients or correlation coefficients of zero order and computed by the formula

$$r_{XY} = \frac{\text{cov}(X, Y)}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y} = \frac{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2} \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2}} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2}}$$

where $x_i = X_i - \bar{X}$ and $y_i = Y_i - \bar{Y}$

From the above facts it follows that

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i - \bar{x} \bar{y}$$

So the covariance of x and y is given by

$$\text{Cov}(x, y) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i - \bar{x} \bar{y}$$

Thus the covariance of x and y is given by

Partial correlation coefficient

Let x and y be two variables and z be a third variable. The partial correlation coefficient between x and y is defined as

Partial correlation coefficient between x and y is given by

Thus the partial correlation coefficient between x and y is given by

$$r_{xy.z} = \frac{r_{xy} - r_{xz} r_{yz}}{\sqrt{1 - r_{xz}^2} \sqrt{1 - r_{yz}^2}}$$

The partial correlation coefficient between x and y is defined as the correlation coefficient between x and y after the effect of z has been removed. It is denoted by $r_{xy.z}$. The partial correlation coefficient between x and y is given by

If the two variables are the same, the partial correlation coefficient is zero. It measures the degree of linear relationship between x and y after the effect of z has been removed. It is denoted by $r_{xy.z}$. The partial correlation coefficient between x and y is given by

From the formula

$$r_{xy.z} = \frac{r_{xy} - r_{xz} r_{yz}}{\sqrt{1 - r_{xz}^2} \sqrt{1 - r_{yz}^2}}$$

- For example, if $r_{xz} = 0$ and $r_{yz} = 0$, then $r_{xy.z} = r_{xy}$. This shows that the partial correlation coefficient between x and y is equal to the correlation coefficient between x and y when z is uncorrelated with both x and y . The partial correlation coefficient between x and y is given by

X_1 are uncorrelated

The coefficient r_{12} is the coefficient of partial determination or it can be interpreted as the proportion of the variation in Y not explained by the variable X_2 but has been explained by the inclusion of X_1 into the model. Conceptually it is similar to R^2 coefficient of determination.

$$R^2 = r_{12}^2 + (1 - r_{12}^2)r_{23}^2$$

$$R^2 = r_{12}^2 + (1 - r_{12}^2)r_{23}^2$$

$$R^2 = r_{12}^2 + (1 - r_{12}^2)r_{23}^2$$

It has been pointed out earlier that R^2 will not decrease if a new independent variable is introduced into the model which can be seen clearly from the equation $R^2 = r_{12}^2 + (1 - r_{12}^2)r_{23}^2$. This equation states that the proportion of the variation in Y explained by X_1 and X_2 jointly is the sum of two parts: the part explained by X_1 alone $= r_{12}^2$ and the part not explained by X_1 $\{= (1 - r_{12}^2)\}$ times the proportion that is explained by X_2 after holding the influence of X_1 constant. Now $R^2 = r_{12}^2$ whenever $r_{23} = 0$. As a result, r_{12}^2 will be zero, in which case $R^2 = r_{23}^2$.

Example 3.5. Following Example 3.1

- Find the values of r_{12} , r_{13} and r_{23} .
- Find the values of the partial regression coefficient $r_{12|3}$.
- Find the value of R^2 in terms of r_{12} , r_{13} and r_{23} .

Solution. From the calculation table of Example 3.1 we have the following values $\sum x_1^2 = 40$, $\sum x_2^2 = 23.20$, $\sum x_3^2 = 24$, $\sum x_1 x_2 = 17$, $\sum x_1 x_3 = 20$ and $\sum x_2 x_3 = 13$ where $x_1 = X_1 - \bar{X}_1$, $x_2 = X_2 - \bar{X}_2$ and $x_3 = X_3 - \bar{X}_3$.

(i) Now by using the formulae of r_{12} , r_{13} and r_{23} and putting the required values we can get the value of r_{12} , r_{13} and r_{23} .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{By definition, } r_{12} = r_{YX} &= \frac{\text{cov}(X_1, Y)}{\sigma_Y \sigma_X} = \frac{\frac{1}{n} \sum (X_1 - \bar{X}_1)(Y - \bar{Y})}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum (X_1 - \bar{X}_1)^2} \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum (Y - \bar{Y})^2}} \\ &= \frac{\frac{1}{n} \sum x_1 y_1}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum x_1^2} \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum y_1^2}} = \frac{\sum x_1 y_1}{\sqrt{\sum x_1^2} \sqrt{\sum y_1^2}} = \frac{20}{\sqrt{40} \times 24} = 0.64 \end{aligned}$$

$$r_{12} = 0.64$$

Similarly, $r_{12} = 0.13$

and

$$r_{23} = 0.64, r_{13} = -0.13 \text{ and } r_{33} = 0.96$$

(ii) We know that

$$R^2 = \frac{r_{12}^2 + r_{13}^2 + r_{23}^2 - 2r_{12}r_{13}r_{23}}{1 - (r_{33})^2}$$

(iii) We know that,

$$\begin{aligned} R^2 &= \frac{(0.64)^2 + (-0.13)^2 + (0.96)^2 - 2(0.64)(-0.13)(0.96)}{1 - (0.96)^2} \\ &= \frac{0.4096 + 0.0169 + 0.9216 + 0.12288}{1 - 0.9216} = 0.96 \\ R &= 0.98 \end{aligned}$$

Example 3.6. Are the following data consistent? Give reasons

(a) $r_{12} = 0.9$, $r_{13} = -0.2$, $r_{23} = 0.8$

(b) $r_{12} = 0.6$, $r_{13} = 0.9$, $r_{23} = 0.5$

Solution. From the above data we will first calculate the value

$$R^2 = \frac{r_{12}^2 + r_{13}^2 + r_{23}^2 - 2r_{12}r_{13}r_{23}}{1 - (r_{33})^2} \text{ and will verify whether } 0 \leq R^2 \leq 1 \text{ or not}$$

(a) Here we see that

$$\begin{aligned} R^2 &= \frac{(0.9)^2 + (-0.2)^2 + (0.8)^2 - 2(0.9)(-0.2)(0.8)}{1 - (0.9)^2} \\ &= \frac{0.81 + 0.04 + 0.64 + 0.288}{1 - 0.81} = \frac{1.738}{0.19} = 9.147 \end{aligned}$$

$R^2 = 9$ which is not possible as $0 \leq R^2 \leq 1$

Hence the given information are not consistent

$$(b) R^2 = \frac{(0.6)^2 + (0.9)^2 + (0.5)^2 - 2(0.6)(0.9)(0.5)}{1 - (0.9)^2} \text{ as } r_{31} = r_{13} = 0.5$$

$$= \frac{0.36 + 0.81 + 0.25 - 0.54}{1 - 0.81} = 0.86$$

Example 19

$$\sum_{i=1}^n x_{1i} = 60042.209, \quad \sum_{i=1}^n (x_{1i} - \bar{x}_1)^2 = 84855.096$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n x_{2i} = 280.000, \quad \sum_{i=1}^n (x_{2i} - \bar{x}_2)^2 = 280.000$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n x_{1i} x_{2i} = 4796.00, \quad \sum_{i=1}^n (x_{1i} - \bar{x}_1)(x_{2i} - \bar{x}_2) = 4796.00$$

Solution The given results are related to a bivariate linear regression model of the form $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + u_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, n$

where β_1 and β_2 are the partial regression coefficients. Assuming $\bar{x}_1 = 1$ and $\bar{x}_2 = 1$, we can obtain the OLS estimates as follows

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\beta}_1 &= \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_{1i}^2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_{2i} - \sum_{i=1}^n x_{1i} x_{2i} \sum_{i=1}^n x_{1i}}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_{1i}^2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_{2i}^2 - (\sum_{i=1}^n x_{1i} x_{2i})^2} \\ &= \frac{280.000 \times 74778.346 - 4796.00 \times 60042.209}{84855.096 \times 280.00 - (4796.00)^2} \\ &= \frac{20937936.88 - 28759426.88}{23759426.88 - 23001616} = \frac{559620.48}{757810.88} = 0.7265 \end{aligned}$$

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = 0.7265$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Similarly, } \hat{\beta}_2 &= \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_{2i}^2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_{1i} - \sum_{i=1}^n x_{1i} x_{2i} \sum_{i=1}^n x_{2i}}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_{1i}^2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_{2i}^2 - (\sum_{i=1}^n x_{1i} x_{2i})^2} \\ &= \frac{84855.096 \times 4250.900 - 4796.00 \times 74778.346}{84855.096 \times 280.000 - (4796.00)^2} \\ &= \frac{2073580.17}{757810.88} = 2.7362 \end{aligned}$$

$$\hat{\beta}_2 = 2.7362$$

Now we have to find out $SE(\hat{\beta}_1) = \sqrt{\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1)}$ and $SE(\hat{\beta}_2) = \sqrt{\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_2)}$

$$\text{We know that } \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \frac{\sigma_u^2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_{2i}^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_{1i}^2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_{2i}^2 - (\sum_{i=1}^n x_{1i} x_{2i})^2}$$

$$\text{and } \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_2) = \frac{\sigma_u^2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_{1i}^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_{1i}^2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_{2i}^2 - (\sum_{i=1}^n x_{1i} x_{2i})^2}$$

There is

So R^2 and \bar{R}^2 are almost the same

19 Confidence Intervals and Hypothesis Testing in a three variable Multiple Linear Regression Model

We consider a multiple linear regression model

given by

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + u_i, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

Suppose $\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2$ and σ_u^2 are the parameters to be estimated

respectively

We also know that

$$\beta_1 \sim N(\beta_1, \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1)) \text{ where } E(\hat{\beta}_1) = \beta_1 \text{ and } \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \frac{\sigma_u^2}{n\sigma_{X_1}^2} \quad \text{--- This is read as}$$

β_1 is normally distributed with mean β_1 and variance $\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1)$

$$\beta_2 \sim N(\beta_2, \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_2)) \text{ where } E(\hat{\beta}_2) = \beta_2$$

$$\text{and } \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_2) = \frac{\sigma_u^2}{n\sigma_{X_2}^2(1 - r_{X_1, X_2}^2)}$$

$$\beta_0 \sim N(\beta_0, \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_0)) \text{ where } E(\hat{\beta}_0) = \beta_0$$

$$\text{and } \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_0) = \frac{\sigma_u^2}{n} \left(1 + \bar{X}_1^2 \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) + 2\bar{X}_1\bar{X}_2 \text{cov}(\hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2) + \bar{X}_2^2 \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_2) \right)$$

$$\text{and } u \sim N(0, \sigma_u^2) \text{ where } E(u) = 0 \text{ and } \text{var}(u) = \sigma_u^2$$

$$\text{and } \text{cov}(\hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2) = \frac{\sigma_u^2 r_{X_1, X_2}}{n\sigma_{X_1}\sigma_{X_2}(1 - r_{X_1, X_2}^2)}$$

We are now interested in testing the following hypothesis

Case 1 We want to test the null hypothesis $H_0: \beta_0 = 0$ against the alternative hypothesis, either $H_1: \beta_0 \neq 0$ or $H_1: \beta_0 > 0$ or $H_1: \beta_0 < 0$

$$\text{Since } \hat{\beta}_0 \sim N(\beta_0, \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_0))$$

$$\text{Now } t \text{ or } Z = \frac{\hat{\beta}_0 - \beta_0}{SE(\hat{\beta}_0)} \sim N(0, 1)$$

would be the appropriate test statistic where $SE(\hat{\beta}_0) = \sqrt{\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_0)}$

When σ_u^2 is unknown and is replaced by its unbiased estimator s^2 ,

Since $E\left[\frac{\sum u_i^2}{n-3}\right] = \sigma_u^2$, then the appropriate test statistic would be

will follow a t -distribution with $d.f. = n - 3$ under H_0 . The test statistic

$$t = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1}{s / \sqrt{1 - R^2}} \sim t_{n-3}$$

Nature of the Test

- For the alternative hypothesis $H_1: \beta_1 > 0$ the null hypothesis $H_0: \beta_1 \leq 0$ will be accepted at 100% level of significance if for the given sample $t > t_{\alpha, n-3}$ and will be rejected otherwise i.e. when $t \leq t_{\alpha, n-3}$.
- For the alternative hypothesis $H_1: \beta_1 < 0$ the null hypothesis $H_0: \beta_1 \geq 0$ will be accepted if for the given sample $t < -t_{\alpha, n-3}$ and will be rejected otherwise when $t \geq -t_{\alpha, n-3}$.
- For the alternative hypothesis $H_1: \beta_1 \neq 0$ the null hypothesis $H_0: \beta_1 = 0$ will be accepted if for the given sample $|t| < t_{\alpha/2, n-3}$ and will be rejected otherwise when $|t| \geq t_{\alpha/2, n-3}$. In each case α denotes the chosen level of significance usually $\alpha = 0.05$ or 0.01 .

Confidence Interval for β_1

As regards the problem of interval estimation of β_1 at 100% level of significance the confidence limits to β_1 would be given by

$$\hat{\beta}_1 \pm t_{\alpha/2, n-3} SE(\hat{\beta}_1)$$

$$\text{i.e. } P\left[-t_{\alpha/2, n-3} \leq t \leq t_{\alpha/2, n-3}\right] = 1 - \alpha$$

$$\text{or } P\left[-t_{\alpha/2, n-3} \leq \frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1}{SE(\hat{\beta}_1)} \leq t_{\alpha/2, n-3}\right] = 1 - \alpha$$

$$\text{or } P\left[\hat{\beta}_1 - t_{\alpha/2, n-3} SE(\hat{\beta}_1) \leq \beta_1 \leq \hat{\beta}_1 + t_{\alpha/2, n-3} SE(\hat{\beta}_1)\right] = 1 - \alpha$$

Here $(1 - \alpha)$ is called the confidence coefficient.

Case 2 We want to test the null hypothesis $H_0: \beta_1 = 0$ against the alternative hypothesis $H_1: \beta_1 > 0$ or $H_1: \beta_1 < 0$ or $H_1: \beta_1 \neq 0$.

Since $\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{1}{n} \sum \hat{\beta}_1$ var $\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{1}{n} \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1)$ where $E(\hat{\beta}_1) = \beta_1$

$$\text{and } \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \frac{\sigma_u^2}{\sum x_i^2 - 1/n \sum x_i^2}$$

Now t or $T = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1}{SE(\hat{\beta}_1)} \sim N(0,1)$ would be the appropriate test statistic where

Nature of the Test

i) For the null hypothesis $H_0: \beta_1 = 0$ the test statistic should be accepted if for the given sample $t_{1,n-1}$ and $t_{1,n-1}$ are such that

ii) For the alternative hypothesis $H_1: \beta_1 > 0$ the test statistic should be accepted if for the given sample $t_{1,n-1}$ and $t_{1,n-1}$ are such that

iii) For the alternative hypothesis $H_1: \beta_1 < 0$ the test statistic should be accepted if for the given sample $t_{1,n-1}$ and $t_{1,n-1}$ are such that

where $t_{1,n-1}$ is the test statistic and $t_{1,n-1}$ is the critical value. In each case $\alpha = 0.01$ or 0.05 denotes the chosen level of significance.

Confidence interval for β_1

As regards the problem of interval estimation in β_1 at level α , the confidence limits to β_1 would be given by,

$$\beta_1 \pm t_{\alpha/2, n-1} SE(\hat{\beta}_1)$$

$$\text{i.e. } P[-t_{\alpha/2, n-1} \leq t \leq t_{\alpha/2, n-1}] = 1 - \alpha$$

$$\text{or } P\left[-t_{\alpha/2, n-1} \leq \frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1}{SE(\hat{\beta}_1)} \leq t_{\alpha/2, n-1}\right] = 1 - \alpha$$

$$\text{or } P[\hat{\beta}_1 - t_{\alpha/2, n-1} SE(\hat{\beta}_1) \leq \beta_1 \leq \hat{\beta}_1 + t_{\alpha/2, n-1} SE(\hat{\beta}_1)] = 1 - \alpha$$

Here $1 - \alpha$ is the confidence coefficient.

Case 3 We want to test the null hypothesis $H_0: \beta_2 = 0$ against the alternative hypotheses $H_1: \beta_2 \neq 0$ or $H_1: \beta_2 > 0$ or $H_1: \beta_2 < 0$

Since $\hat{\beta}_2 \sim N[\beta_2, \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_2)]$ where $E(\hat{\beta}_2) = \beta_2$

$$\text{and } \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_2) = \frac{\sigma_u^2}{n\sigma_{X_2}^2(1 - r_{12}^2)}$$

Now t or $Z = \frac{\hat{\beta}_2 - \beta_2}{SE(\hat{\beta}_2)} \sim N(0,1)$ would be the appropriate test statistic where

$$SE(\hat{\beta}_2) = \sqrt{\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_2)}$$

When σ_u^2 is not known then it is replaced by its unbiased estimator $\hat{\sigma}_u^2 = \sum e^2 / (n - 3)$ and the test statistic becomes $t = \frac{\hat{\beta}_2 - \beta_2}{SE(\hat{\beta}_2)} \sim t_{n-3}$

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Under $H_0: \beta_1 = 0$ the test statistic would be

$$t = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - 0}{SE(\hat{\beta}_1)} \sim t_{n-2}$$

Nature of the Test

For the alternative hypothesis $H_1: \beta_1 > 0$ the null hypothesis $H_0: \beta_1 = 0$ will be accepted for the given sample $t = t_{n-2}$ and will be rejected otherwise.

For the alternative hypothesis $H_1: \beta_1 < 0$ the null hypothesis $H_0: \beta_1 = 0$ will be accepted for the given sample $t = t_{n-2}$ and will be rejected otherwise when $t < -t_{n-2}$.

For the alternative hypothesis $H_1: \beta_1 \neq 0$ the null hypothesis $H_0: \beta_1 = 0$ will be accepted for the given sample $t = t_{n-2}$ and will be rejected when $t > t_{n-2}$ or $t < -t_{n-2}$ (i.e. when $|t| > t_{n-2}$).

Confidence Interval for β_1

As regards the problem of interval estimation of β_1 at $100(1-\alpha)\%$ level of significance the confidence limits for β_1 would be given by

$$\hat{\beta}_1 \pm t_{\alpha/2, n-2} SE(\hat{\beta}_1)$$

$$\text{or } P\left\{ \hat{\beta}_1 - t_{\alpha/2, n-2} SE(\hat{\beta}_1) < \beta_1 < \hat{\beta}_1 + t_{\alpha/2, n-2} SE(\hat{\beta}_1) \right\} = 1 - \alpha$$

$$\text{or } P\left\{ \frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1}{SE(\hat{\beta}_1)} < t_{\alpha/2, n-2} \text{ and } \frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1}{SE(\hat{\beta}_1)} > -t_{\alpha/2, n-2} \right\} = 1 - \alpha$$

$$\text{or } P\left\{ -t_{\alpha/2, n-2} \leq \frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_1}{SE(\hat{\beta}_1)} \leq t_{\alpha/2, n-2} \right\} = 1 - \alpha$$

where $t_{\alpha/2, n-2}$ is the confidence coefficient.

Case 4 We want to test the null hypothesis $H_0: \beta_1 = \beta_2$ against the alternative hypothesis $H_1: \beta_1 \neq \beta_2$ or $H_1: \beta_1 > \beta_2$ or $H_1: \beta_1 < \beta_2$.

Since $\beta_1 = \beta_2 = \beta$, $\beta_1 - \beta_2 = 0$, we can write

where $\beta_1 = \beta_2 = \beta$, $\beta_1 - \beta_2 = 0$, we can write

and $\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_2) = \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) + \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_2) - 2\text{cov}(\hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2)$

$$= \sigma_e^2 \left(\frac{1}{X_1'X_1} + \frac{1}{X_2'X_2} - 2 \frac{X_1'X_2}{X_1'X_1 X_2'X_2} \right)$$

$$\text{or } \text{Cov}(\hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2) = \frac{\sigma_e^2 X_1'X_2}{X_1'X_1 X_2'X_2} = \frac{\sigma_e^2}{X_1'X_1} \frac{X_1'X_2}{X_2'X_2}$$

The appropriate test statistic would be given by

$$t = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_2}{SE(\hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_2)} \sim t_{n-2}$$

where $SE(\hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_2) = \sqrt{\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_2)}$

Let $t = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_2}{SE(\hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_2)}$ and $t_{\alpha/2, n-3}$ be the critical value of t for $n-3$ d.f. and α level of significance.

Then the test statistic is given by

$$t = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_2}{SE(\hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_2)} \sim t_{n-3}$$

Accept the null hypothesis if the value of

$$|t| \leq t_{\alpha/2, n-3}$$

or $|\hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_2| \leq t_{\alpha/2, n-3} SE(\hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_2)$

Nature of the Test

- For the alternative hypothesis if $\beta_1 - \beta_2 > 0$, $\hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_2$ will be accepted if for the given sample $t > t_{\alpha, n-3}$ and will be rejected otherwise.
- For the alternative hypothesis if $\beta_1 - \beta_2 < 0$, $\hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_2$ will be accepted if for the given sample $t < -t_{\alpha, n-3}$ and will be rejected otherwise when $t = -t_{\alpha, n-3}$.
- For the alternative hypothesis if $\beta_1 - \beta_2 \neq 0$, $\hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_2$ will be accepted if for the given sample $t > t_{\alpha/2, n-3}$ or $t < -t_{\alpha/2, n-3}$ and will be rejected otherwise when $t = \pm t_{\alpha/2, n-3}$.

Confidence Interval of $(\beta_1 - \beta_2)$:

At 100 $\alpha\%$ level of significance the confidence interval for $(\beta_1 - \beta_2)$ would be given by

$$(\hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_2) \pm t_{\alpha/2, n-3} SE(\hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_2)$$

$$\text{i.e., } P[-t_{\alpha/2, n-3} \leq t \leq t_{\alpha/2, n-3}] = 1 - \alpha$$

$$\text{or, } P\left[-t_{\alpha/2, n-3} \leq \frac{(\hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_2) - (\beta_1 - \beta_2)}{SE(\hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_2)} \leq t_{\alpha/2, n-3}\right] = 1 - \alpha$$

$$\text{or, } P[(\hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_2) - t_{\alpha/2, n-3} SE(\hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_2) \leq (\beta_1 - \beta_2) \leq (\hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_2) + t_{\alpha/2, n-3} SE(\hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_2)] = 1 - \alpha$$

where $(1 - \alpha)$ is the confidence coefficient

Case 5 - Confidence interval for σ_u^2 :

Under the normality assumption, the variable

$$\chi^2 = \frac{RSS}{\sigma_u^2} = \frac{\sum e_i^2}{\sigma_u^2} = (n-3) \frac{\sigma_u^2}{\sigma_u^2}$$

follows a χ^2 (chi square) distribution with d.f. = $n-3$, where $\sigma_u^2 = \frac{\sum e_i^2}{(n-3)}$, is an unbiased estimator of σ_u^2

Therefore we can use $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2$ in calculating a confidence interval for σ^2 .

A $(1-\alpha) \times 100\%$ confidence interval for σ^2 is $\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2, \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 \right)$.

$$= \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2, \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 \right) \quad \text{where } x_i \text{ values are taken from the table.}$$

(3)

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 \quad (2)$$

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2$$

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2$$

where α is the confidence coefficient.

Example 3.8. The following table contains observations on the quantity demanded of a certain commodity (Y), its price (X_1 in \$) and consumer's income (X_2 in \$).

Y	10	15	20	25	30	35	40	45	50
X_1	5	7	6	6	8	7	5	4	3
X_2	1000	600	200	500	400	400	1000	100	300

Assume a linear regression equation of the form

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 \quad \text{where } \beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2 = 0$$

- Find the OLS estimators of β_0 , β_1 and β_2 (i.e. $\hat{\beta}_0$, $\hat{\beta}_1$ and $\hat{\beta}_2$).
- Find R^2 and adjusted R^2 (\bar{R}^2).
- Find $\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_0)$, $\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1)$ and $\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_2)$.
- Find $\text{SE}(\hat{\beta}_0)$, $\text{SE}(\hat{\beta}_1)$ and $\text{SE}(\hat{\beta}_2)$.
- Write the regression results in the summary form.
- Test $H_0: \beta_0 = 0$ against $H_1: \beta_0 \neq 0$ and find 95% and 99% confidence intervals for β_0 .
- Test $H_0: \beta_1 = 0$ against $H_1: \beta_1 \neq 0$ and find 95% and 99% confidence intervals for β_1 .
- Test $H_0: \beta_2 = 0$ against $H_1: \beta_2 \neq 0$ and find 95% and 99% confidence intervals for β_2 .
- Test $H_0: \beta_1 = \beta_2$ against $H_1: \beta_1 \neq \beta_2$ and find 95% and 99% confidence intervals for (β_1, β_2) .
- Construct 95% and 99% confidence intervals of σ^2 .

Calculation Table 3.3

n	Y	X_1	X_2	$y_i = Y_i - \bar{Y}$	$x_{1i} = X_{1i} - \bar{X}_1$	\bar{X}_1	$x_{2i} = X_{2i} - \bar{X}_2$	\bar{X}_2	y_i^2	x_{1i}^2	x_{2i}^2	$x_{1i}y_i$	$x_{2i}y_i$	$x_{1i}x_{2i}$
1	100	5	1000	20	1		200		400	1	40,000	20	4000	200
2	75	7	600	5	1		200		25	1	40,000	5	1000	-200
3	80	6	1200	0	0		400		0	0	160,000	0	0	0
4	70	6	500	-10	0		300		100	0	90,000	0	3000	0
5	50	8	300	30	2		500		900	4	250,000	60	2000	1000
6	65	7	400	-15	1		-400		225	1	160,000	-15	6000	-400
7	90	5	1300	10	-1		500		100	1	250,000	10	2000	-500
8	100	4	1100	20	2		300		400	4	90,000	40	2000	800
9	110	3	1300	30	3		500		900	9	250,000	90	2000	1800
10	60	9	300	20	3		500		400	9	250,000	60	2000	1800
$n = 10$	$\Sigma Y_i = 800$	$\Sigma X_{1i} = 60$	$\Sigma X_{2i} = 8000$	$\Sigma y_i = 0$	$\Sigma x_{1i} = 0$		$\Sigma x_{2i} = 0$		$\Sigma y_i^2 = 3450$	$\Sigma x_{1i}^2 = 20$	$\Sigma x_{2i}^2 = 880,000$	$\Sigma x_{1i}y_i = 600$	$\Sigma x_{2i}y_i = 65000$	$\Sigma x_{1i}x_{2i} = 9800$

$$Y = \frac{\Sigma Y_i}{n} = \frac{800}{10} = 80 \quad X_1 = \frac{\Sigma X_{1i}}{n} = \frac{60}{10} = 6 \quad \text{and} \quad X_2 = \frac{\Sigma X_{2i}}{n} = \frac{8000}{10} = 800$$

Solution

The normal equations are

$$\begin{aligned} \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \beta_2 x^2 &= y \\ \sum_{i=1}^n y_i &= \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_1 x_i + \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_2 x_i^2 \\ 10 &= 10\beta_0 + 10\beta_1 + 10\beta_2 \\ 10 &= 10\beta_0 + 10\beta_1 + 10\beta_2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \beta_2 x^2 &= y \\ \sum_{i=1}^n y_i &= \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_1 x_i + \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_2 x_i^2 \\ 10 &= 10\beta_0 + 10\beta_1 + 10\beta_2 \\ 10 &= 10\beta_0 + 10\beta_1 + 10\beta_2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\beta_0 = 1, \beta_1 = 0.3$$

When β_0 and β_1 are known β_2 can be obtained from the equation

$$\begin{aligned} \beta_2 &= \frac{1}{n} \left(\frac{\sum y_i}{\sum x_i^2} - \frac{\sum y_i \sum x_i}{\sum x_i^2 \sum x_i} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{10} \left(\frac{10}{10} - \frac{10 \times 10}{10 \times 10} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{10} (1 - 1) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Thus we have $\beta_0 = 1, \beta_1 = 0.3$ and $\beta_2 = 0$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{We know that } R^2 &= \frac{\text{ESS}}{\text{TSS}} = \frac{\sum (\hat{y}_i - \bar{y})^2}{\sum (y_i - \bar{y})^2} \\ &= \frac{10 - 10(1)^2}{10 - 10(1)^2} = 1 \end{aligned}$$

This means that price and income can jointly explain 100% variation in demand out of total variation of 100%.

Now, adjusted $R^2 = \frac{ESS}{n-2} = \frac{10 - 10(1)^2}{10 - 2} = 1$

$$R^2 = 1 \text{ and adjusted } R^2 = 1$$

$$R^2 = 0.994 \text{ and adjusted } R^2 = 0.963$$

$$\text{We know that } \text{var}(\beta_1) = \frac{\sigma_y^2}{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$

Here σ_y^2 is unknown and it is replaced by its unbiased estimator s_y^2

$$\text{We know that } R^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum e_i^2}{\sum y_i^2} = 1 - \frac{1800}{9500}$$

$$= 1 - \frac{1800}{9500} = 0.8105$$

$$R^2 = 0.8105 \Rightarrow R = 0.9003$$

$$\text{Now } \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \frac{\sigma_u^2}{\sum x_{1i}^2} = \frac{52.24}{580000} = 0.00009$$

$$\text{We know that } \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \frac{\sigma_u^2}{\sum x_{1i}^2} = \frac{52.24}{580000} = 0.00009$$

$$\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = 0.00009$$

$$\text{Again } \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_2) = \frac{\sigma_u^2}{\sum x_{2i}^2} = \frac{52.24}{580000} = 0.00009$$

$$= \frac{52.24 \times 10}{30 \times 580000 - (-5900)^2} = \frac{52.24}{12590000} = 0.00000415$$

$$\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_2) = 0.00000415$$

$$\text{Again, } \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_0) = \frac{\sigma_u^2}{n} + \bar{x}_1^2 \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) + 2\bar{x}_1\bar{x}_2 \text{cov}(\hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2) + \bar{x}_2^2 \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_2)$$

$$\text{We know that } \sigma_u^2 = 52.24, n = 30, \bar{x}_1 = 6, \bar{x}_2 = 800, \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = 0.00009, \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_2) = 0.00000415$$

$$\text{and } \text{cov}(\hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2) = \frac{-\sigma_u^2 \sum x_{1i} x_{2i}}{\sum x_{1i}^2 \sum x_{2i}^2 - (\sum x_{1i} x_{2i})^2}$$

$$= \frac{52.24 \times (-5900)}{30 \times 580000 - (-5900)^2} = \frac{308216}{12590000} = 0.0245$$

$\text{cov}(\hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2) = 0.0245$ We now put these values in the expression of $\hat{\beta}_0$ and we get,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_0) &= \frac{52.24}{10} + (6)^2 \times 0.00009 + 2 \times 6 \times 800 \times 0.0245 + (800)^2 \times 0.00000415 \\ &= 5.224 + 0.324 + 235.2 + 2.624 = 243.372 \end{aligned}$$

(iv) We know that $SE(\hat{\beta}_1) = \sqrt{\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1)}$

$$SE(\hat{\beta}_1) = \sqrt{\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1)} = \sqrt{0.00009} = 0.00947$$

$$s^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2 = \frac{1}{10-1} \sum_{i=1}^{10} (y_i - \bar{y})^2$$

$$s^2 = \frac{1}{9} \sum_{i=1}^{10} (y_i - \bar{y})^2 = \frac{1}{9} \times 11.33 = 1.259$$

The regression results in summary form

$$y = 1.1 + 0.133x$$

$$s^2 = 1.259 \quad (s = 1.122)$$

$$R^2 = 0.194, \text{ Adjusted } R^2 = \bar{R}^2 = 0.5617$$

We now test the null hypothesis $H_0: \beta_1 = 0$ against the alternative $H_1: \beta_1 \neq 0$. The appropriate test statistic under $H_0: \beta_1 = 0$ would be

$$t = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1}{SE(\hat{\beta}_1)} \quad t_n$$

$$\text{Here observed } \frac{\hat{\beta}_1}{SE(\hat{\beta}_1)} = \frac{1.1270}{0.5549} = 2.032$$

The null hypothesis $H_0: \beta_1 = 0$ will be accepted if it lies in the interval $[-t_{\alpha/2, n-2}, t_{\alpha/2, n-2}]$ and will be rejected otherwise.

$$\text{When } \alpha = 0.05, \quad t_{0.025, 10} = t_{0.025, 8} = 2.306$$

$$t_{0.025, 8} = 2.306 \text{ (Table value)}$$

Thus we see that $t = \text{observed} = 2.032$ does not lie in the interval $[-2.306, 2.306]$. Hence $H_0: \beta_1 = 0$ is rejected and $H_1: \beta_1 \neq 0$ is accepted at $\alpha = 0.05$ level of significance.

Similarly, when $\alpha = 0.01$, $t_{0.005, 8} = 3.357$. Here we see that $t = \text{observed} = 2.032$ does not lie in the interval $[-3.357, 3.357]$. Hence $H_0: \beta_1 = 0$ is rejected and $H_1: \beta_1 \neq 0$ is accepted at 1% level of significance.

We know that $100(1 - \alpha)\%$ confidence interval of β_1 would be

$$P\left\{ \hat{\beta}_1 - t_{\alpha/2, n-2} SE(\hat{\beta}_1) \leq \beta_1 \leq \hat{\beta}_1 + t_{\alpha/2, n-2} SE(\hat{\beta}_1) \right\} = 1 - \alpha$$

$$\text{or } P\left\{ \hat{\beta}_1 - t_{\alpha/2, n-2} SE(\hat{\beta}_1) \leq \beta_1 \leq \hat{\beta}_1 + t_{\alpha/2, n-2} SE(\hat{\beta}_1) \right\} = 1 - \alpha$$

$$\text{or } P\left\{ \hat{\beta}_1 - t_{\alpha/2, n-2} SE(\hat{\beta}_1) \leq \beta_1 \leq \hat{\beta}_1 + t_{\alpha/2, n-2} SE(\hat{\beta}_1) \right\} = 1 - \alpha$$

when $\alpha = 0.05$, $P\{H_1: t_{0.025, 8} = 2.306 < \beta_1 < 1.1270 + 2.306 \times 0.5549 = 2.409\} = 1 - 0.05 = 0.95$

or $P\{H_1: 2.306 < 2.032 < 2.306\} = 1 - 0.05 = 0.95$

or $P\{H_1: 2.306 < \beta_1 < 2.306\} = 0.95$

95% confidence intervals of β_1 are $[-2.306, 2.306]$ and $[-2.306, 2.306]$

Similarly, when $\alpha = 0.01$, then $100(1 - \alpha)\% = 99\%$

So 95% confidence intervals of β_0 would be

$$\hat{\beta}_0 \pm t_{0.025, n-3} SE(\hat{\beta}_0)$$

$$\text{or } 70 \pm 1.96 \times 23.571$$

$$\text{or } 70 \pm 46.199$$

$$\text{or } 23.801 \text{ and } 116.199$$

So 95% confidence intervals of β_1 are 23.801 and 116.199

To test the null hypothesis $H_0: \beta_1 = 0$ against the alternative $H_1: \beta_1 \neq 0$ the

test statistic under $H_0: \beta_1 = 0$ would be $t = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1}{SE(\hat{\beta}_1)}$

$$\text{Here observed } t = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1}{SE(\hat{\beta}_1)} = \frac{2.19}{2.5592} = 0.856$$

Now, $t_{0.05, n-3} = 0$ will be accepted if for the given sample $t < t_{0.05, n-3}$ (observed)

and will be rejected otherwise.

$$\text{When } \alpha = 0.05, t_{0.025, n-3} = t_{0.025, 10-3} = t_{0.025, 7} = 2.365$$

$$\text{and when } \alpha = 0.01, t_{0.005, n-3} = t_{0.005, 7} = 3.499$$

Here we see that $t = 0.856$ does not lie in the interval -2.365 and 2.365 and hence $H_0: \beta_1 = 0$ is rejected at 5% level of significance. But $t = 0.856$ lies in the interval -3.499 and 3.499 and hence $H_0: \beta_1 = 0$ is accepted at 1% level of significance.

(k) α % confidence limits to β_1 would be

$$\hat{\beta}_1 \pm t_{\alpha/2, n-3} SE(\hat{\beta}_1)$$

when $\alpha = 0.05$, then 95% confidence limits to β_1 would be

$$\hat{\beta}_1 \pm t_{0.025, n-3} SE(\hat{\beta}_1)$$

$$\text{or } 2.19 \pm 2.365 \times 2.5592$$

$$\text{or } 2.19 \pm 6.0525 \text{ or } -3.8625 \text{ and } 8.2425$$

So, 95% confidence limits to β_1 are -3.8625 and 8.2425

Similarly, when $\alpha = 0.01$ then 99% confidence limits to β_1 would be

$$\hat{\beta}_1 \pm t_{0.005, n-3} SE(\hat{\beta}_1)$$

$$\text{or } 2.19 \pm 3.499 \times 2.5592$$

$$\text{or } 2.19 \pm 8.9546 \text{ or } -6.7646 \text{ and } 11.1446$$

So, 99% confidence limits to β_1 are -6.7646 and 11.1446

(viii) To test the null hypothesis $H_0: \beta_2 = 0$ against the alternative $H_1: \beta_2 \neq 0$ the appropriate test statistic under $H_0: \beta_2 = 0$ would be

$$t = \frac{\hat{\beta}_2}{SE(\hat{\beta}_2)} \quad t_{n-3}$$

and will be rejected otherwise.

$$W_{\text{obs}} = \frac{0.43 - 0}{0.00134} = 320.9$$

$$\text{and when } \alpha = 0.05, \text{ } z_{\alpha/2} = 1.96$$

$$\text{Here we see that } W_{\text{obs}} = 320.9 > z_{\alpha/2} = 1.96$$

∴ we reject the null hypothesis. $\mu_1 = 0.43$ and $\mu_2 = 0.4$ are different. Both are ± 2 standard errors of $\mu_1 - \mu_2$ away and hence it follows $N(\mu_1 - \mu_2, 0.00134)$. The 95% confidence intervals of $\mu_1 - \mu_2$ would be

$$\hat{\mu}_1 - \hat{\mu}_2 \pm 1.96 SE(\hat{\mu}_1 - \hat{\mu}_2)$$

when $\alpha = 0.05$, 95% confidence intervals of $\mu_1 - \mu_2$ would be

$$\hat{\mu}_1 - \hat{\mu}_2 \pm 1.96 SE(\hat{\mu}_1 - \hat{\mu}_2)$$

$$\text{or } 0.03 \pm 1.305 = 0.011$$

$$\text{or } 0.04 = 0.0262 \text{ or } 0.0142 \text{ and } 0.0498$$

So 95% confidence intervals of $\mu_1 - \mu_2$ are 0.011 and 0.0498

When $\alpha = 0.01$, then the 99% confidence intervals of $\mu_1 - \mu_2$ would be

$$\hat{\mu}_1 - \hat{\mu}_2 \pm 2.575 SE(\hat{\mu}_1 - \hat{\mu}_2)$$

$$\text{or } 0.03 \pm 2.575 \times 0.00134$$

$$\text{or } 0.03 = 0.0035 \text{ or } 0.0265 \text{ and } 0.0335$$

So, 99% confidence intervals of $\mu_1 - \mu_2$ are 0.0265 and 0.0335

(ix) To test the null hypothesis $\mu_1 = \mu_2$ against the alternative $\mu_1 \neq \mu_2$ the appropriate test statistic under $H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2$ would be

$$t = \frac{\hat{\mu}_1 - \hat{\mu}_2}{SE(\hat{\mu}_1 - \hat{\mu}_2)} \quad t_{n-2}$$

$$\text{Now } t(\text{observed}) = \frac{\hat{\mu}_1 - \hat{\mu}_2}{SE(\hat{\mu}_1 - \hat{\mu}_2)}$$

Since $\mu_1 = 0.43$, $\mu_2 = 0.4$, $\text{var}(\hat{\mu}_1) = 0.00134$, $\text{var}(\hat{\mu}_2) = 0.00024$ and

$$SE(\hat{\mu}_1 - \hat{\mu}_2) = \sqrt{\text{var}(\hat{\mu}_1) + \text{var}(\hat{\mu}_2)} = 2\text{cov}(\hat{\mu}_1, \hat{\mu}_2)$$

$$= \sqrt{0.00134 + 0.00024} = 0.041$$

$$= \sqrt{0.00134 + 0.00024} = 0.041 = \sqrt{0.00158} = 0.0397$$

Now $\beta_1 = \beta_2$ will be accepted if for the $2 - \alpha = 0.95$ it will be rejected otherwise

Where $\alpha = 0.05$, $t_{0.025, 1} = 10.000, 2 = 2.365$

and when $\alpha = 0.01$, $t_{0.005, 1} = 10.000, 2 = 2.365$

here we see that t observed > 2.365 does not lie in the interval $[-2.365, 2.365]$ and hence $H_0: \beta_1 = \beta_2$ is rejected and if $H_1: \beta_1 \neq \beta_2$ is accepted at 5% level of significance

Now we see that t observed > 2.365 lies in the interval $[-2.365, 2.365]$ and hence $H_0: \beta_1 = \beta_2$ is accepted at 1% level of significance

$$(\beta_1 - \beta_2) \pm t_{\alpha/2, n-2} SE(\hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_2)$$

when $\alpha = 0.05$ then $100(1 - \alpha)\% = 95\%$ confidence interval of $(\beta_1 - \beta_2)$ would be

$$(\hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_2) \pm t_{0.025, 1} SE(\hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_2)$$

$$\text{or } -7.9 - 0.6143 \pm 2.365 \times 2.544$$

$$\text{or } -7.9047 \pm 6.0283 \text{ or } -13.2326 \text{ and } -1.776$$

So 95% confidence intervals of $(\beta_1 - \beta_2)$ are -13.2326 and -1.776

When $\alpha = 0.01$ then $100(1 - \alpha)\% = 99\%$ confidence interval of $(\beta_1 - \beta_2)$ would be

$$(\hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_2) \pm t_{\alpha/2, n-2} SE(\hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_2)$$

$$\text{or } -7.9 - 0.6143 \pm t_{0.005, 1} \times 2.544$$

$$\text{or } -7.9047 \pm 3.499 \times 2.544$$

$$\text{or } -7.9047 \pm 8.9189 \text{ or } -16.1232 \text{ and } 1.7146$$

So 99% confidence intervals of $(\beta_1 - \beta_2)$ are -16.1232 and 1.7146

(x) We have to construct 95% and 99% confidence intervals of σ_u^2

We know that $100(1 - \alpha)\%$ confidence intervals of σ_u^2 would be given by

$$n-3 \frac{\sigma_u^2}{\chi_{n-3, \alpha/2}^2} \text{ and } (n-3) \frac{\sigma_u^2}{\chi_{n-3, 1-\alpha/2}^2} \text{ where } \chi \text{ values are taken from the table}$$

with u.f = $n-3$

$$\text{When } \alpha = 0.05 \quad \chi_{0.025, n-3}^2 = \chi_{0.025, 1}^2 = 16.013$$

$$\text{and } \chi_{0.975, n-3}^2 = \chi_{0.975, 1}^2 = 1.690$$

So, $455 = 300 + 150 + 5$ and $5 = 4 + 1$

$$= 300 + 150 + 4 + 1$$

and $\frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{52.24}{2.6} = \frac{7 \times 52.24}{2.6} = 216.19$

Again when $n = 1$, $\frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}$

and $\frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}$

So, the confidence intervals of α_1 would be

$$\frac{1}{2} \pm \frac{1.96}{\sqrt{2.6}} \times \frac{52.24}{2.6} = 2.5 \pm 19.24$$

and $\frac{1}{2} \pm \frac{1.96}{\sqrt{2.6}} \times \frac{52.24}{2.6} = 2.5 \pm 19.24$

3.10 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) in a Multiple Linear (Three Variable) Regression Model

Yet another item that is often presented in connection with the three variable linear regression model is the **analysis of variance**. This is the break down of total sum of squares (TSS) into explained sum of squares (ESS) and the residual sum of squares (RSS).

The estimated three variable linear regression line where the regression equation is $\hat{Y} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + \epsilon_i$ is given by $\hat{Y} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \bar{X}_1 + \beta_2 \bar{X}_2$ and $\bar{Y} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \bar{X}_1 + \beta_2 \bar{X}_2$

Taking deviations from mean we have

$$\hat{y}_i = \hat{Y} - \bar{Y} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \bar{x}_{1i} + \beta_2 \bar{x}_{2i} - (\beta_0 + \beta_1 \bar{X}_1 + \beta_2 \bar{X}_2)$$

$$\text{or } \hat{y}_i = \beta_1 (\bar{x}_{1i} - \bar{X}_1) + \beta_2 (\bar{x}_{2i} - \bar{X}_2)$$

$$\text{or } \hat{y}_i = \beta_1 x_{1i} + \beta_2 x_{2i} \text{ where } x_{1i} = \bar{x}_{1i} - \bar{X}_1 \text{ and } x_{2i} = \bar{x}_{2i} - \bar{X}_2$$

$$\text{Now, error of estimate } e_i = Y_i - \hat{Y}_i = Y_i - (\beta_0 + \beta_1 \bar{X}_1 + \beta_2 \bar{X}_2)$$

$$\text{Now, } \sum y_i^2 = \sum (\hat{y}_i)^2 + \sum e_i^2 = \sum \hat{y}_i^2 + \sum e_i^2$$

$$\sum y_i^2 = \sum \hat{y}_i^2 + \sum e_i^2 \text{ as } \sum \hat{y}_i e_i = 0 \text{ by assumption}$$

$$\text{i.e. TSS = ESS + RSS}$$

with $H_0: \beta_1 = \beta_2 = 0$
 $K = 3$ as there are three parameters to be estimated.

link we see in total number of observations n and number of parameters K to be estimated. In multiple type of ANOVA the regression model is the regression model.

ANOVA TABLE
Table 3.4

Source of variation	Sum of squares	Parameter	df	MS	F
Explained	$ESS = 1$		1		
Between	$ESS_{A B}$ $ESS_{B A}$	A	1	MSE MSE	
Residual					
within	$RSS = 2$	$n - K$	RSS $n - K$	MSE	
Total	$TSS = 3$	n			

In case of a three variable linear regression model there are three parameters and hence $K = 3$.

The test aims at finding out whether the explanatory variables X_1 and X_2 do actually have any significant influence on the dependent variable Y . Formally the test of the overall significance of the regression implies testing the null hypothesis $H_0: \beta_1 = \beta_2 = 0$ against the alternative hypothesis H_1 (not all β_i are zero). We may use the test statistic

$$F = \frac{MSE}{MSE} = \frac{\sum v^2 / (A-1)}{\sum e_i^2 / (n-K)}$$

$$= \frac{\sum v^2 / 1}{\sum e_i^2 / (n-3)} = \frac{\sum v^2 / 1}{\sum e_i^2 / (n-3)} \text{ with } df = 1, n-3 \text{ (Here } K=3\text{)}$$

Now we have to compare F_{cal} with the table value of F with $df = 2, n-3$. If it is found that $F_{cal} > F_{table}$ (Table value) we reject the null hypothesis at 100 $\alpha\%$ level of significance ($\alpha = 0.01$ or 0.05 usually), i.e. we accept that the regression is significant and not all β_i are zero.

If $F^* < F_{\alpha}$, we accept the null hypothesis that the regression is not significant.

Note: Relation between R^2 and F

There is an intimate relationship between the coefficient of multiple correlation R^2 and the F test used in the analysis of variance. As we have seen, R^2 is a measure of the proportion of the variance in the dependent variable that is explained by the independent variable. The F test is a test of the null hypothesis that the regression coefficient is zero.

$$F^* = \frac{ESS / (K - 1)}{RSS / (n - K)}$$

is distributed as the F -distribution with $(K - 1)$ and $(n - K)$ degrees of freedom. Here K is the number of parameters in the regression model, including the constant intercept term α_0 .

$$\text{Now we can write } F^* = \frac{ESS / (K - 1)}{RSS / (n - K)}$$

$$\frac{n - K}{K - 1} \cdot \frac{ESS}{RSS} = \frac{n - K}{K - 1} \cdot \frac{ESS}{ESS + RSS}$$

$$\frac{n - K}{K - 1} \cdot \frac{ESS}{ESS + RSS} = \frac{n - K}{K - 1} \cdot \frac{R^2 \cdot (ESS + RSS)}{ESS + RSS} = \frac{n - K}{K - 1} \cdot R^2$$

$$F^* = \frac{R^2}{1 - R^2} \cdot \frac{n - K}{K - 1}$$

It should be noted that here K = number of parameters in the model. When $K = 1$, there are no explanatory variables. When $K = 2$, $F^* = 1$. The larger the R^2 , the greater the F^* value.

In the limit, when $R^2 \rightarrow 1$, F^* is infinite. Thus the F test, which is a measure of the statistical significance of the estimated regression, is also a test of significance of R^2 . In other words, testing the null hypothesis $H_0: \beta_1 = \beta_2 = \dots = \beta_K = 0$ is equivalent to test the null hypothesis that population R^2 is zero. The ANOVA table can also be written expressed in terms of R^2 as shown below.

ANOVA TABLE in terms of R^2

Table 3.5

Source of variation	Sum of squares (SS)	Degrees of freedom (d.f.)	Mean sum of squares (MSS)	F	
				Observed	Tabulated
Explained (between)	$ESS = \sum y_i^2$ $= R^2 \sum y_i^2$	$K - 1$	$ESS / (K - 1)$ $= MSE$	$F = \frac{MSE}{MSE}$	
Residual (within)	$RSS = \sum e_i^2 =$ $= (1 - R^2) \sum y_i^2$	$n - K$	$RSS / (n - K)$ $= MSR$	with d.f.	$= (K - 1, n - K)$
Total	$TSS = \sum y_i^2$	$n - 1$			

ANOVA TABLE relating to demand for a commodity

Table 3.8

Source of variation	Sum of squares (SS)	Degrees of freedom (f)	Mean sum of squares (MS)	F
Between	3086.5	2	1543.25	7.74
Within	363.5	7	51.92	29.72
Total	3450	9		

Here the sample size, $n = 10$, number of parameters $K = 3$

$K - 1 = 2$ and $n - K = 10 - 3 = 7$

From Example 3.8 we have obtained the results

$$ESS = \sum y_i^2 = \beta_1 \sum x_{1i} y_i + \beta_2 \sum x_{2i} y_i = 3086.5$$

$$RSS = \sum e_i^2 = 363.5 \text{ and } TSS = \sum y_i^2 = 3450$$

Now the null hypothesis $H_0: \beta_1 = \beta_2 = 0$ will be rejected if for the given sample

$$F = F^* (\text{observed}) = \frac{MSE}{MSR} \text{ [with d.f. } (K - 1) = 2 \text{ and } (n - K) = 7]$$

is greater than the table value of F with d.f. $(K - 1) = 2$ and $n - K = 7$. From the table value we see that $F_{0.05, 2, 7} = 7.74$ and $F_{0.01, 2, 7} = 29.55$

Here we see that $F (\text{observed}) = F^* = 29.72$ and $F_{0.01, 2, 7} = 29.55$

$$F^* > F_{0.01, 2, 7}$$

So, at 1% level of significance the null hypothesis $H_0: \beta_1 = \beta_2 = 0$ will be rejected for the given sample

We also see that $F^* = 29.72 > F_{0.05, 2, 7} = 7.74$. This means that at 5% level of significance the null hypothesis $H_0: \beta_1 = \beta_2 = 0$ will be rejected for the given sample

Thus both at 1% and 5% levels of significance we may claim that the coefficients of the regression equation are not zero.

It should be noted that we can also construct the ANOVA table in the following Example 3.6 we are showing the ANOVA table below in terms of R^2 .

ANOVA TABLE in terms of R^2

Table 3.7

Source of variation	Sum of squares (SS)	Degrees of freedom (d.f.)	Mean sum of squares (MS)	F	
				Observed	Table
Explained (between)	$TSS - RSS$ $1894 - 3450$ 1044.30	$K - 1 = 2$	$TSS - TSS$ $= MSE$ 1044.30 2 522.15	$F = F^*$ $= 14.58$ $= 154.75$ 52.42 29.52	$F_{0.01}$ 7.74 $F_{0.05}$ 9.55
Residual (within)	RSS $Y - K - F^2$ $3450 - 3450$ 365.70	$n - K - 1 = 7$	$RSS / (n - K)$ 9158 365.70 52.242		
Total	TSS $2110 - 3450$	$n - 1 = 9$			

From Example 3.4 we have seen that $n = 10$, $K = 3$, $2110 - 3450$ and $R^2 = 0.894$. Here also we see that $F = 14.58 > F_{0.01} = 7.74$ and $F = 14.58 > F_{0.05} = 9.55$.

Thus the null hypothesis $H_0: \beta_1 = \beta_2 = 0$ is rejected both at 1% and 5% levels of significance.

3.11. The Cobb-Douglas Production Function : More on Functional Form

In Section 2.18 we showed how with appropriate transformations we can convert non-linear relationships into linear ones so that we can work within the framework of classical linear regression model. We consider the Cobb-Douglas Production function which shows a three variable non-linear relation. The Cobb-Douglas Production function, in its stochastic form, may be expressed as

$$Y = \beta_0 X_1^{\beta_1} X_2^{\beta_2} \epsilon$$

where Y = output, X_1 = labour input, X_2 = capital input, ϵ = Stochastic disturbance term, β_0 = constant technological parameter.

Taking log on both sides of the equation

$$\log Y = \log \beta_0 + \beta_1 \log X_1 + \beta_2 \log X_2 + \log U$$

$$\text{or } y = \alpha + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + u$$

Thus the model is transformed into a linear form

$$y = \alpha + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + u$$

We can now apply the usual OLS method to estimate the parameters. The model is estimated using the OLS estimates of the Cobb-Douglas production function

where $\hat{\alpha}$ is the intercept term, $\hat{\beta}_1$ and $\hat{\beta}_2$ are the OLS estimates of β_1 and β_2 respectively.

(i) $\hat{\alpha}$ is the intercept term, $\hat{\beta}_1$ and $\hat{\beta}_2$ are the OLS estimates of β_1 and β_2 respectively.

$$\log \hat{Y} = \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}_1 \log \hat{X}_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 \log \hat{X}_2 + \log \hat{U}$$

$$\log \hat{Y}_i = \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}_1 \log \hat{X}_{1i} + \hat{\beta}_2 \log \hat{X}_{2i} + \log \hat{U}_i$$

(ii) Likewise $\hat{\beta}_1$ is the parameter β_1 and $\hat{\beta}_2$ is the parameter β_2 .

$$\log \hat{Y} = \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}_1 \log \hat{X}_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 \log \hat{X}_2 + \log \hat{U}$$

$$\text{i.e. } \log \hat{Y}_i = \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}_1 \log \hat{X}_{1i} + \hat{\beta}_2 \log \hat{X}_{2i} + \log \hat{U}_i$$

(iii) The sum $(\hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_2)$ gives information about the scale of the production function.

displays IRS, CRS and DRS according as $\hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 > 1$, $\hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 = 1$ and $\hat{\beta}_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 < 1$ respectively.

Example 3.10. A production function is specified as $Y_i = \beta_0 X_{1i}^{\beta_1} X_{2i}^{\beta_2} U_i$, where $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$

Y_i = output, X_1 = labour input, X_2 = capital input, U_i = Stochastic disturbance term.

n = sample size. The corresponding Log-linear form of the production function is given by

$$\log Y_i = \log \beta_0 + \beta_1 \log X_{1i} + \beta_2 \log X_{2i} + \log U_i$$

$$\text{or } y_i = \alpha + \beta_1 x_{1i} + \beta_2 x_{2i} + u_i, u_i \sim N(0, \sigma_u^2)$$

On the basis of a sample size of 23 the following results are given: $\alpha = 4.1$, $\hat{\beta}_1 = 0.7$, $\hat{\beta}_2 = 0.2$, $RSS = 1.4$, $TSS = 10$, $\text{var}(u) = 0.6084$, $\text{var}(\hat{\alpha}) = \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_2) = 1.35$

$$\log Y_i = \log \beta_0 + \beta_1 \log X_{1i} + \beta_2 \log X_{2i} + \log U_i$$

$$\text{or } y_i = \alpha + \beta_1 x_{1i} + \beta_2 x_{2i} + u_i, u_i \sim N(0, \sigma_u^2)$$

On the basis of a sample size of 23 the following results are given: $\alpha = 4.1$, $\hat{\beta}_1 = 0.7$, $\hat{\beta}_2 = 0.2$, $RSS = 1.4$, $TSS = 10$, $\text{var}(u) = 0.6084$, $\text{var}(\hat{\alpha}) = \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_2) = 1.35$

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = 0.7, \hat{\beta}_2 = 0.2, RSS = 1.4, TSS = 10, \text{var}(u) = 0.6084, \text{var}(\hat{\alpha}) = \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_2) = 1.35$$

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = 0.7, \hat{\beta}_2 = 0.2, RSS = 1.4, TSS = 10, \text{var}(u) = 0.6084, \text{var}(\hat{\alpha}) = \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_2) = 1.35$$

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = 0.7, \hat{\beta}_2 = 0.2, RSS = 1.4, TSS = 10, \text{var}(u) = 0.6084, \text{var}(\hat{\alpha}) = \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_2) = 1.35$$

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$$\hat{\beta}_1 = 0.7, \hat{\beta}_2 = 0.2, RSS = 1.4, TSS = 10, \text{var}(u) = 0.6084, \text{var}(\hat{\alpha}) = \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_2) = 1.35$$

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$$\hat{\beta}_1 = 0.7, \hat{\beta}_2 = 0.2, RSS = 1.4, TSS = 10, \text{var}(u) = 0.6084, \text{var}(\hat{\alpha}) = \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_2) = 1.35$$

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = 0.7, \hat{\beta}_2 = 0.2, RSS = 1.4, TSS = 10, \text{var}(u) = 0.6084, \text{var}(\hat{\alpha}) = \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_2) = 1.35$$

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = 0.7, \hat{\beta}_2 = 0.2, RSS = 1.4, TSS = 10, \text{var}(u) = 0.6084, \text{var}(\hat{\alpha}) = \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_2) = 1.35$$

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = 0.7, \hat{\beta}_2 = 0.2, RSS = 1.4, TSS = 10, \text{var}(u) = 0.6084, \text{var}(\hat{\alpha}) = \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_2) = 1.35$$

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = 0.7, \hat{\beta}_2 = 0.2, RSS = 1.4, TSS = 10, \text{var}(u) = 0.6084, \text{var}(\hat{\alpha}) = \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_2) = 1.35$$

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = 0.7, \hat{\beta}_2 = 0.2, RSS = 1.4, TSS = 10, \text{var}(u) = 0.6084, \text{var}(\hat{\alpha}) = \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_2) = 1.35$$

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = 0.7, \hat{\beta}_2 = 0.2, RSS = 1.4, TSS = 10, \text{var}(u) = 0.6084, \text{var}(\hat{\alpha}) = \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_2) = 1.35$$

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = 0.7, \hat{\beta}_2 = 0.2, RSS = 1.4, TSS = 10, \text{var}(u) = 0.6084, \text{var}(\hat{\alpha}) = \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_2) = 1.35$$

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = 0.7, \hat{\beta}_2 = 0.2, RSS = 1.4, TSS = 10, \text{var}(u) = 0.6084, \text{var}(\hat{\alpha}) = \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_2) = 1.35$$

Solution : (i) The estimated regression equation can be written as

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}_1 x_{1i} + \hat{\beta}_2 x_{2i}$$

$$\text{or } \hat{Y}_i = 4.0 + 0.7 x_{1i} + 0.2 x_{2i}$$

the value of multiple coefficient of determination given by R^2

$$\text{where } R^2 = \frac{TSS - RSS}{TSS} = \frac{0.4 - 0.6}{0.4 + 0.6} = 0.3333$$

$$\text{We know that } SE(\beta_1) = \sqrt{\text{var}(\beta_1)} = \sqrt{0.0004} = 0.02$$

$$\text{similarly, } SE(\beta_2) = \sqrt{\text{var}(\beta_2)} = \sqrt{0.0004} = 0.02$$

$$\text{now } SE(\sigma^2) = \sqrt{\text{var}(\sigma^2)} = \sqrt{0.0004} = 0.02$$

∴ We have to find out the value of 95% estimator of $\sigma_u^2 = \sigma^2 + \sigma_u^2$

$$\text{We know that } \sigma_u^2 = \frac{\sum e_i^2}{n-3} = \frac{RSS}{n-3}$$

$$\text{where } RSS = 1 + \text{unexplained}$$

$$\sigma_u^2 = \frac{RSS}{n-3} = \frac{1}{20} = 0.05$$

∴ We have to estimate the 95% confidence intervals for α, β_1, β_2 and σ_u^2

Using the t distribution with d.f. $(n-3) = (24-3) = 20$, we can get the 95% confidence intervals for α, β_1 and β_2 as

$$\text{For } \alpha: \hat{\alpha} \pm t_{\alpha/2, 20} SE(\hat{\alpha}) = 4.01 \pm 0.66 \times 0.02 = 0.3$$

$$= 3.7 \pm 0.131 = (3.56869, 3.83130) \text{ as } n = 24, \alpha = 0.05$$

$$\text{For } \beta_1: \hat{\beta}_1 \pm t_{\alpha/2, 20} SE(\hat{\beta}_1) = 0.7 \pm 0.66 \times 0.02$$

$$= 0.7 \pm 0.0131 = (0.68689, 0.71310)$$

$$\text{and for } \beta_2: \hat{\beta}_2 \pm t_{\alpha/2, 20} SE(\hat{\beta}_2) = 0.2 \pm 0.66 \times 0.02$$

$$= 0.2 \pm 0.0131 = (0.18689, 0.21310)$$

Again, 95% confidence intervals for σ_u^2 would be

$$P\left[\chi_{n-3}^2 \leq \frac{\sigma_u^2}{\sigma^2} \leq \chi_{n-3}^2\right] = 1 - \alpha$$

$$\text{When } \alpha = 0.05, n = 23, \hat{\sigma}_u^2 = 0.07$$

$$P\left[20 \leq \frac{0.07}{\sigma_u^2} \leq 20\right] = 0.95 = 0.95$$

$$\text{or } P\left[\frac{0.4}{20} \leq \sigma_u^2 \leq \frac{1.4}{20}\right] = 0.95$$

$$\text{or } P[0.02 \leq \sigma_u^2 \leq 0.07] = 0.95$$

95% confidence intervals for σ_u^2 are 0.02 and 0.07

To test the null hypothesis $H_0: \beta_1 = 1$ against the alternative $H_1: \beta_1 \neq 1$, the appropriate test statistic under the $H_0: \beta_1 = 1$ is

$$t(\text{observed}) = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - 1}{SE(\hat{\beta}_1)} \sim t_{n-1}$$

$$t(\text{observed}) = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - 1}{SE(\hat{\beta}_1)} = \frac{0.7 - 1}{0.102} = -2.941$$

$H_0: \beta_1 = 1$ will be accepted if $|t| \leq t_{\alpha/2, n-1}$

and will be rejected otherwise

When $\alpha = 0.05$, $t_{0.025, 20} = 2.086$

Here we see that $t(\text{observed}) = -2.941$

does not lie in the interval -2.086 and 2.086 and hence

hypothesis $H_1: \beta_1 \neq 1.0$ is rejected at 5% level of significance

Again to test the null hypothesis $H_0: \beta_2 = 0$ against the alternative $H_1: \beta_2 \neq 0$, the appropriate test statistic under $H_0: \beta_2 = 0$ would be

$$t(\text{observed}) = \frac{\hat{\beta}_2 - 0}{SE(\hat{\beta}_2)} \sim t_{n-1}$$

$$\text{Here } t(\text{observed}) = \frac{0.2}{0.102} = 1.960$$

Now, $H_0: \beta_2 = 0$ will be accepted if for the given sample $|t| \leq t_{\alpha/2, n-1}$

and will be rejected otherwise

When $\alpha = 0.05$, $t_{0.025, 20} = 2.086$

Here we see that $t(\text{observed}) = 1.960$ lies in the interval -2.086 and 2.086 and hence $H_0: \beta_2 = 0$ is accepted at 5% level of significance.

11.12. Prediction / Forecasting in the Multiple (Three-Variable) Regression Model

The formulas for prediction in multiple regression are similar to those in the case of simple (two variable linear regression) regression, except that to compute the standard error of the predicted value we need the variances and covariances of all regression parameters. Here we will present the expression for the standard error in the case of two explanatory variables.

Let the estimated regression equation be,

$$\hat{Y} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 X_2$$

Now consider the prediction of the value Y_0 of Y given values X_{10} of X_1 and X_{20} of X_2 , respectively. These could be values at some future date

Then we have $Y_0 = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{10} + \beta_2 X_{20} + u_0$

$$\text{and } \hat{Y}_0 = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_{10} + \hat{\beta}_2 X_{20}$$

The predicted value is

$$\hat{y} = 11.70 + 0.9 \hat{x}_1 + 0.0002 \hat{x}_2$$

where $\hat{x}_1 = 10$ and $\hat{x}_2 = 400$

Thus the predicted value is $\hat{y} = 20.58$

The variance of the predicted value is

$$\text{var}(\hat{y}) = \text{var}(y) \left[\frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x_1 - \bar{x}_1)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_{1i} - \bar{x}_1)^2} + \frac{(x_2 - \bar{x}_2)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_{2i} - \bar{x}_2)^2} \right]$$

$$\text{var}(\hat{y}) = \text{var}(y) \left[\frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x_1 - \bar{x}_1)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_{1i} - \bar{x}_1)^2} + \frac{(x_2 - \bar{x}_2)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_{2i} - \bar{x}_2)^2} \right]$$

$$= 0.0001 \left[\frac{1}{10} + \frac{(10 - 10)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_{1i} - 10)^2} + \frac{(400 - 400)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_{2i} - 400)^2} \right]$$

where $\text{var}(y)$

$$= \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2}{n-3} = \frac{0.0001}{10-3} = 0.0000143$$

and $\text{cov}(\hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2)$

$$= \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_{1i} - \bar{x}_1)(x_{2i} - \bar{x}_2)}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_{1i} - \bar{x}_1)^2 \sum_{i=1}^n (x_{2i} - \bar{x}_2)^2}$$

where $x_{1i} = 10$, $x_{2i} = 400$, $\bar{x}_1 = 10$, $\bar{x}_2 = 400$

When $n = 10$ and $\bar{x}_1 = 10$, $\bar{x}_2 = 400$, $\sum_{i=1}^n (x_{1i} - \bar{x}_1)^2 = 0$ and $\sum_{i=1}^n (x_{2i} - \bar{x}_2)^2 = 0$. Thus $\text{var}(\hat{y}) = 0$ and the prediction will be $\hat{y} = 20.58$ with $SE(\hat{y}) = 0$ where $SE(\hat{y}) = \sqrt{\text{var}(\hat{y})}$.

Example 3.11. Following Example 3.10

using the estimated regression $\hat{y} = 11.70 + 0.9 \hat{x}_1 + 0.0002 \hat{x}_2$ Find the prediction of \hat{y} for $\hat{x}_1 = 10$ and $\hat{x}_2 = 400$

Using the results of $\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = 0.0001$, $\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_2) = 0.0001$ and $\text{cov}(\hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2) = 0$ derived in Example 3.8, estimate the variance of the prediction error and the standard error of the prediction error

(ii) Find 95% confidence interval for the prediction

Solution

(i) The prediction of \hat{y} can be obtained using the estimated regression equation.

$$\hat{y} = 11.70 + 0.9 \hat{x}_1 + 0.0002 \hat{x}_2$$

Here we put $\hat{x}_1 = 10$ and $\hat{x}_2 = 400$ and get

$$\hat{y} = 11.70 + 0.9(10) + 0.0002(400) = 20.58$$

The predicted value of \hat{y} is $\hat{y} = 20.58$ when $\hat{x}_1 = 10$ and $\hat{x}_2 = 400$

(ii) From example 3.8 we obtain $\text{var}(\hat{y}) = 0.0001$ and $\text{cov}(\hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2) = 0.0001$

1.3.11. $\hat{Y}_0 = 52.24 \left(1 + \frac{1}{10} \right) + (10 - 6)^2 \cdot 0.99$
 or the estimated value of \hat{Y}_0 is
 $\hat{Y}_0 = 52.24 + 0.99 = 53.23$

$$\hat{Y}_0 = 52.24 \left(1 + \frac{1}{10} \right) + (10 - 6)^2 \cdot 0.99$$

$$= 52.24 + 0.99 = 53.23$$

Let $X_{10} = 10$ and $X_{20} = 1400$, which are given

$$X_1 = 4, X_2 = 1, X_3 = 2, X_4 = 3, X_5 = 4, X_6 = 5, X_7 = 6, X_8 = 7, X_9 = 8$$

$$X_{10} = 10, X_{20} = 1400, X_{30} = 1100$$

$$174.564$$

$$\text{var}(\hat{Y}_0) = 174.564$$

$$\text{and } SE(\hat{Y}_0) = \sqrt{\text{var}(\hat{Y}_0)} = \sqrt{174.564} = 13.21$$

Variance of the prediction is 174.564 and standard error is 13.21

ii) We know that $(1 - \alpha) 100\%$ confidence interval for prediction would be

$$\hat{Y}_0 \pm t_{\alpha/2, n-1} SE(\hat{Y}_0) \text{ when } \alpha = 0.05, t_{0.025, 9} = 2.262$$

95% confidence interval for prediction would be

$$\hat{Y}_0 \pm t_{0.025, 9} SE(\hat{Y}_0)$$

$$\text{or } 53.23 \pm 2.262 \cdot 13.21 \text{ or } 53.23 \pm 29.78 \text{ or } (23.45, 83.01)$$

95% confidence interval for prediction would be 23.45 and 83.01

3.13. Regression Analysis in Presence of Qualitative (Dummy) Variables

3.13.1. Meaning

In Section 1.10 we mentioned four types of variables that one generally encounters in empirical analysis. These are ratio scale, interval scale, ordinal scale and nominal scale. The types of variables used in earlier sections were essentially ratio scale. In many cases we deal with models that may involve not only ratio scale variables but also nominal scale variables. Such variables are known as indicator variables, categorical variables, qualitative variables, or, dummy variables (Binary variables).

3.13.2. Nature of Dummy Variables

In regression analysis the dependent variable or regressand is frequently influenced not only by ratio scale variables (e.g. income, output, prices, costs, height, weight, temperature, etc.) but also by variables that are essentially qualitative or nominal scale, in nature, such as sex, race, colour, religion, nationality, geographical region, political upheavals and party affiliation. For example, holding all other factors constant, female workers are found to earn less than their male counterparts or non-white workers are

The saving function can be written as the following

$$S_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Y_t + u_t$$

where S_t = saving Y_t = income

t = time variable (range)

where $u_t = 0$

(iii) Dummy variables are used for measuring the shift of a function over time

A shift of a function implies that the coefficients remain constant. Such a shift can be represented by the introduction of a dummy variable in the function.

For example suppose that we have data of the consumption function for an economy for the period 1910-1928. During this period the economy faced a World War (1914-1918) and a deep depression (1929-1933). The abnormal conditions prevailing in these years have caused a shift of the consumption function. To capture this shift we may use a dummy variable say Z which would assume the value 1 during the above abnormal years and 0 in the other normal years. The consumption function takes the form

$$C_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Y_t + \beta_2 Z_t + u_t, (\beta_2 > 0)$$

where C = consumption, Y = income,

Z = Dummy variable for the shift of the function

For a normal year the estimated form of the consumption function will be

$$\hat{C} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 Y + \hat{\beta}_2 = (\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_2) + \hat{\beta}_1 Y$$

and for an abnormal period it would be

$$\hat{C} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 Y$$

If we plot these two functions we can clearly see the shift in the consumption function during the abnormal (War and depression) years

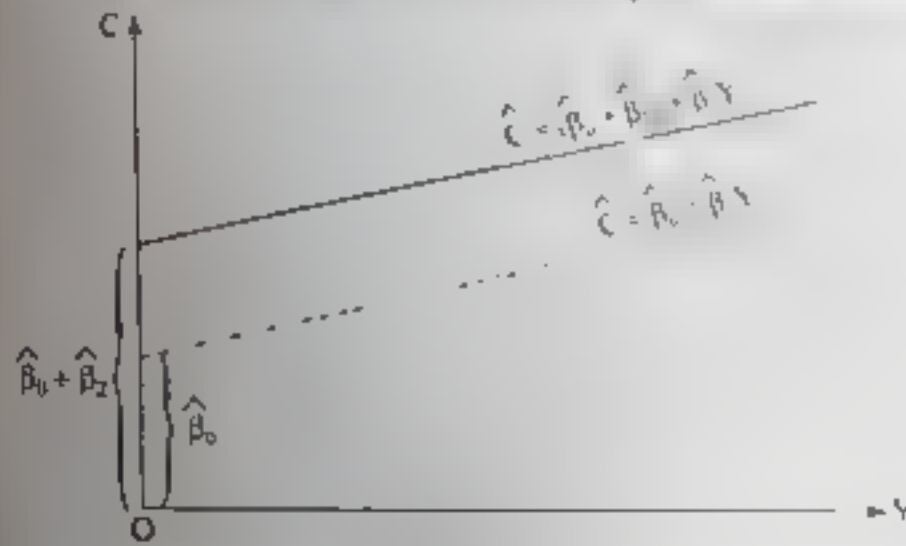


Fig. 3.1

The slope of the consumption function (Fig. 3.1) i.e. MPC is assumed to be the same both in normal and abnormal periods and hence the two regression lines are parallel (only intercept changes, slope remaining the same).

(iv) Dummy variables are used for measuring the change of parameters (slope) over time

It is usual that over the period of time of an abnormal war - suppose 1940-45 - not only the demand for the consumption of petrol changes but also the income may well be expected to change. Consequently, the parameters change over time, change in the parameters - a function that be captured by introducing appropriate dummy variables in the function.

We can write here the consumption function in the form

$$C_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Y_t + \beta_2 Z_t + \beta_3 Z_{2t} + u_t$$

where C_t = consumption, Y_t = income

Z_t = Dummy variable = 1 abnormal years
= 0 normal years

$Z_{2t} = Y_t$ Dummy variable = 1 for abnormal years (when $Z_t = 1$)
= 0 for normal years (when $Z_t = 0$)

Consequently for a normal period the estimated consumption function will be given by

$\hat{C}_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Y_t$ while for an abnormal year the estimated value will be

$$\hat{C}_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Y_t$$

In this case both slope and intercept of the function will change

(v) Dummy variables are used as proxies for the dependent variable

In some cases the dependent variable of a function may be a dummy variable

For example suppose we want to measure the determinants of car ownership from a cross-section sample. Some people will have cars while others will not. Suppose that the determinants is the membership of some job category and profession.

The functional relation can be written in the form

$$C = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Y + \beta_2 Z + u$$

where C = car owners or non-owners

Y = income
= 1 for car owners
= 0 for non owner

Here C is taken as a dummy variable

Y = income

Z = a dummy variable for profession

= 1 if employed formally

= 0 if employed informally

It should be noted that if the dependent variable of a function is taken as a dummy variable, the disturbance term will be heteroscedastic and method of OLS will not be appropriate there

(vi) Dummy variables are used for seasonal adjustments of time series

One of the most common use of dummy variables is in removing seasonal variations in time series. For example if we have quarterly data on retail sales we should adjust

Let Y be the response variable and X_1, X_2, \dots, X_k be the explanatory variables. The model is given by

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \dots + \beta_k X_k + u$$

where u is the error term. The quarterly dummy variables are defined as follows:

- $Q_1 = 1$ in the first quarter, 0 in all other quarters
- $Q_2 = 1$ in the second quarter, 0 in all other quarters
- $Q_3 = 1$ in the third quarter, 0 in all other quarters
- $Q_4 = 1$ in the fourth quarter, 0 in all other quarters

Dummy variable trap

It should be noted that we cannot include all four quarterly dummy variables in the model. If we include all four, the sum of the terms of sums of squares and cross products involving the quarterly dummies would be zero. This is because the sum of the quarterly dummies is equal to 1 in every observation, which is equivalent to the constant intercept β_0 .

If we apply OLS to the above quarterly model, the OLS estimators of the parameters will give seasonal effect for each of the three quarters. For the fourth quarter, the effect is zero and the seasonal effect for the fourth quarter is the constant intercept β_0 .

In fact, when we introduce a large number of dummy variables in the model, we cannot obtain the OLS estimators of the parameters. This is because the matrix $(X'X)^{-1}$ may be singular and $(X'X)^{-1}$ may not exist. This problem is called **Dummy variable trap**.

Some illustrative Examples

Example 3.12. Consider the following model showing consumption expenditure by geographical region

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 D_{1i} + \beta_2 D_{2i} + u_i$$

where Y_i = Average consumption expenditure (₹) per person per day in State i

$$D_{1i} = \begin{cases} = 1, & \text{if the State is in the Eastern region of India} \\ = 0, & \text{otherwise (i.e., in other region of the country)} \end{cases}$$

$$D_{2i} = \begin{cases} = 1, & \text{if the State is in the North Western region of the country} \\ = 0, & \text{otherwise (i.e., in other region of the country)} \end{cases}$$

Using data for 17 States of India in 2006-07 the following results are obtained by OLS method

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{Y}_i &= 1097.38 + 241.04 D_{1i} + 30.09 D_{2i} \\ SE & (103.31) \quad (133.37) \quad (129.50) \\ t & (10.62) \quad (-1.81) \quad (-0.23) \end{aligned}$$

The regression reveals that the mean per capita consumption of expenditure is about ₹ 11.34 in the eastern region, the per capita consumption about ₹ 9.34 and that in the North-West central region is lower about ₹ 7.34.

Example 3.13. We consider a model to show the literacy rate Y in the 29 states of India (1960-61).

The model takes the form

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 D_{1i} + \beta_2 D_{2i} + u_i$$

where Y = literacy rate (percent)

$$D_1 = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if female} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$D_2 = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{Urban} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Using data on 29 States of India for 1960-61 the following results were obtained (OLS method):

$$\begin{aligned} Y &= \beta_0 + \beta_1 D_1 + \beta_2 D_2 \\ SR &= (1.82) \quad (2.10) \quad (2.10) \\ t &= (41.65) \quad (-7.77) \quad (7.62) \end{aligned}$$

In this regression model there are two dummy variables. The regression reveals that the mean literacy rate is about 53.2 percent (compared with this the average literacy rate for female is lower by about 16.3 percent for an urban average literacy rate of $(75.82 - 16.32) = 59.50$ percent.

In contrast for those who live in the urban area the mean literacy rate is higher by about 4 percent for an actual average literacy rate of $75.82 - 4 = 71.82$ percent.

Example 3.14. This example shows regression with a mixture of qualitative and quantitative regressors. We consider the following model:

Let Y = Average consumption expenditure ₹ per person by 30 states in India

Let X = Average household size (the number of persons in State

D_1 = 1 if the State is in the Eastern region of India
0 otherwise

D_2 = 1 if the State is in the North-West central region of the country
0 otherwise

The above equation is fitted with the help of the data on Household consumption expenditure in India 1960-61 and obtained

$$\begin{aligned} Y &= 2454.72 - 15.06 D_1 - 1677.1 D_2 + 44.77 X \\ SR &= (50) \quad (-1.45) \quad (-60.24) \quad (26.40) \\ t &= (4.36) \quad (-0.11) \quad (-1.90) \quad (2.3) \end{aligned}$$

$$R^2 = 0.97$$

These results suggest that other things remaining the same, as household size goes up by one person, on an average the per capita consumption expenditure goes down by about ₹ 15.06.

11.4 A Brief Outline on Qualitative Response Regression Models

In all the regression models that we have seen so far, the dependent variable is continuous. In the regression model, the dependent variable is continuous, whereas the explanatory variable is continuous or a mixture thereof.

In reality we may have to consider regression models in which the dependent variable is qualitative. The qualitative response regression models are used in various areas of social sciences and medical research.

For example, we like to study the labour force participation. Since a person is either in the labour force or not, the dependent variable or regressand can take on two values, say 1 if the person is in the labour force and 0 if he is not. In other words, the dependent variable is a binary or dichotomous variable.

In qualitative regression models where the regressand is binary, the objective is to find the probability of something happening. Hence qualitative response regression models are often referred to as probability models.

There are four approaches to developing a probability model for a binary dependent variable where the regressand itself is qualitative in nature. These are:

1. The linear probability model (LPM)
2. The logit model
3. The probit model
4. The tobit model

Because of its comparative simplicity, and because it can be estimated by ordinary least square (OLS), we first consider the linear probability model (LPM).

The Linear Probability Model (LPM)

We consider a two variable regression model

$$Y_i = \alpha + \beta X_i + u_i \quad (1) \text{ where}$$

X_i = family income, Y_i = a binary variable

$$\text{i.e., } Y_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if the family owns a house} \\ 0 & \text{if it does not own a house} \end{cases}$$

Model (1) looks like a typical linear regression model but because the regressand is binary it is called a linear probability model (LPM). This is because the conditional

expectation of Y_i given X_i , $E(Y_i/X_i)$, can be interpreted as the conditional probability

that the event will occur given X_i , that is, $P(Y_i = 1/X_i)$. Thus, in our example $E(Y_i/X_i)$ gives the probability of a family owning a house and whose income is the given amount X_i .

The justification of the name LPM for models like equation (1) can be seen as follows. Assuming $E(u_i) = 0$, as usual we obtain

$$E(Y_i/X_i) = \alpha + \beta X_i \quad (2)$$

As we see, the disturbance u_i is the error term and probability that $u_i = 1$ is p and the probability that $u_i = 0$ is $1 - p$. The variable u_i is a Bernoulli random variable.

u_i	probability
1	p
0	$1 - p$

We show that Y_i follows a Bernoulli probability distribution.

As in the definition of mathematical expectation

$$E(Y_i) = 0 \cdot (1 - p) + 1 \cdot p = p \quad (3)$$

Now, replacing equation (3) with equation (2)

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + u_i \quad (4)$$

this is in fact the conditional probability of Y_i . Since the probability p only is between 0 and 1, we have the restriction:

$$0 \leq E\left(\frac{Y_i}{X_i}\right) \leq 1 \quad (5)$$

From the above explanation it would seem that (1) can be easily extended to binary dependent variable regression models. So we may assume that there is nothing new here. But this is not the case because the LPM poses severe problems which are as follows:

(i) Non-Normality of the Disturbances u_i

Although OLS does not require the disturbances u_i to be normally distributed, we assumed them to be so distributed for the purpose of statistical inference. But the assumption of normality for u_i is not feasible for the LPMs because like Y_i the disturbances u_i also take only two values—that is, they also follow the Bernoulli distribution.

This can be seen clearly if we write equation (3) as $u_i = Y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 X_i$ (6)

the probability distribution of u_i is

	u_i	probability
when $Y = 1$	$1 - \beta_0 - \beta_1 X_i$	p
when $Y = 0$	$-\beta_0 - \beta_1 X_i$	$1 - p$

Obviously u_i cannot be assumed to be normally distributed—they follow the Bernoulli distribution. But the non-fulfilment of the normality assumption may not be as critical as it appears because we know that the GLS point estimates will remain unbiased. Besides, as the sample size increases indefinitely statistical theory shows that OLS estimators tend to be normally distributed generally. As a result, in large samples the statistical inference of the LPM will follow the usual OLS procedure under the normality assumption.

(ii) Heteroscedastic variances of the Disturbances

Even if $E(u_i) = 0$ and $\text{cov}(u_i, u_j) = 0$ for $i \neq j$ (i.e. no serial correlation), it can no longer be maintained that in the LPM the disturbances are homoscedastic. This is

... the variance of the error term ...

$$E(u_i) = 0$$

... the variance of the error term ...

... the variance of the error term ...

... the variance of the error term ...

... the variance of the error term ...

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + u_i$$

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + u_i$$

we can now apply OLS to this model, called Weighted Least Square (WLS) with w serving as weights

In theory, what we have just described is fine. But in practice, because $E(u_i^2|x_i)$ is unknown, hence the weights w_i are unknown. To estimate w we can use the following two-step procedure

Step 1: We can run the OLS on regression despite the heteroscedasticity problem and obtain

\hat{y}_i = estimate of true $E(y_i/x_i)$. Then obtain $w_i = 1/(1 - \hat{y}_i^2)$, the estimate of w .

Step 2: We can use the estimated w_i to transform the data shown in equation (9) and estimate the transformed equation by OLS (i.e. weighted least squares).

(iii) Non fulfillment of $0 \leq E(y_i/x_i) \leq 1$

Since $E(y_i/x_i)$ in the LPM measures the conditional probability of the event $y=1$ occurring, given X it must necessarily lie between 0 and 1. Although this is true a priori there is no guarantee that \hat{y}_i , the estimators of $E(y_i/x_i)$ will necessarily fulfil this restriction, and this is the real problem with the OLS estimation of the LPM. This happens because OLS does not take into account the restriction that $0 \leq E(y_i/x_i) \leq 1$. There

10. What is meant by the term β_0 ? β_0 is the intercept of the regression line. It is the value of y when $x = 0$.
11. How can we determine the value of β_0 if we know the value of β_1 ? $\beta_0 = \bar{y} - \beta_1 \bar{x}$, where \bar{y} is the mean of y and \bar{x} is the mean of x .
12. In terms of a three-step process, give an explicit formula for the least squares estimator of β_0 . $\beta_0 = \bar{y} - \beta_1 \bar{x}$, where $\bar{y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i$ and $\bar{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$.
13. What is a measure of the spread of the data? The standard deviation of y is a measure of the spread of the data. It is denoted by σ_y .
14. Show that β_0 is the least squares estimator of β_0 . $\beta_0 = \bar{y} - \beta_1 \bar{x}$.
15. Show that the least squares estimator of β_0 is $\hat{\beta}_0 = \bar{y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{x}$, where $\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$.
16. Show that the least squares estimator of β_0 is $\hat{\beta}_0 = \bar{y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{x}$, where $\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$.
17. Describe the regression procedure of the regression of y on x and parameters β_0 and β_1 . The regression procedure is to find the values of β_0 and β_1 that minimize the sum of the squares of the residuals.
18. What is meant by success of fit of a linear regression model?
19. What is meant by multiple coefficient of determination? Derive the formula of multiple coefficient of determination, or in other words, show that the linear regression model

and the

9470 10/11/01 9

5) $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{1}{1+x^2+y^2} dx dy = \frac{\pi}{2}$

A client hint [...](#)

where

22 In formula (5) the variable x is substituted by the expression $2x + 3$.

$$\text{Hilb}(\mathbb{C}^n) \cong \mathbb{P}^n$$
[illegible]

13. Let R be a relation on A . Then R is reflexive if and only if $\forall a \in A, (a, a) \in R$.
relation between 关系是 何时成立 $a \rightarrow a, a \in A$ 是 $a \in A$
成立

34. What is submitted to the City as it is part of a new...

29. Defina parâmetros estatísticos para os dados da tabela a seguir.

[illegible]

27. $\text{H}_2\text{N}-\text{CH}_2-\text{CH}_2-\text{NH}_2$ reacts with $\text{H}_2\text{N}-\text{CH}_2-\text{CH}_2-\text{NH}_2$ to form a polymer. The repeating unit of the polymer is $-\text{NH}-\text{CH}_2-\text{CH}_2-\text{NH}-\text{CH}_2-\text{CH}_2-\text{NH}-\text{CH}_2-\text{CH}_2-\text{NH}-$.

46. How much time does it take to do a single step? _____

29. What is the meaning of the term *partial correlation*? How is it computed? Is it a bivariate linear regression model? Explain. Is it possible to have a partial correlation of 1? Explain in this regard.

14. Establish the relationship between β and Γ in terms of a model. What would be the value of Γ when $\beta = 1$?

21. Fill in the ANOVA Table. How can you interpret an F of 4 while the p-value is .001?

33. The Cobb-Douglas production function is also used to estimate the impact of

1. $\ln H_0 \cdot T^{-2} \cdot T_{\infty}$ where T = output T , labour input T and T_{∞} = maximum
distance term H_0 = constant technological parameter. How do we estimate the
technique parameters by applying the OLS method? What about the
for the function.

32. What do you mean by qualitative variables, sequential variables, qualitative variables, dummy variables, binary variables? Give an example.

24. What do you mean by "dummy variables"? How can you incorporate these variables in the regression model? When is a dummy variable used?

4. What do you know by looking at the following graph? Explain what the axes in the graph represent in ecological community processes.

36. What are the dummy variables in a constant model where dummy variables are proxies for the dependent variable?
37. What are the dummy variables in a constant model where dummy variables are proxies of numerical factors?
38. What are the dummy variables in a constant model where dummies are used in measuring the shift of a time trend variable?
39. What do you mean by qualitative response regression model? Give an example of qualitative response models study covered in applied econometric model.
40. The following data were obtained from a set of observations on Y and X :
- | X | Y |
|-----|-----|
| 1 | 2 |
| 2 | 3 |
| 3 | 4 |
| 4 | 5 |
| 5 | 6 |
| 6 | 7 |
| 7 | 8 |
| 8 | 9 |
| 9 | 10 |
| 10 | 11 |
- (a) Estimate the regression of Y on X and t using the results, that the coefficient of t is zero.
41. Consider the following regression model in deviation form:
- $$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \beta_2 t_i + \epsilon_i$$
- sample data:
- | x_i | y_i | t_i |
|-------|-------|-------|
| 1 | 2 | 1 |
| 2 | 3 | 2 |
| 3 | 4 | 3 |
| 4 | 5 | 4 |
| 5 | 6 | 5 |
| 6 | 7 | 6 |
| 7 | 8 | 7 |
| 8 | 9 | 8 |
| 9 | 10 | 9 |
| 10 | 11 | 10 |
- Estimate β_0 , β_1 , β_2 and their standard errors.
- (i) Test the hypothesis $H_0: \beta_1 = 0$ against $H_1: \beta_1 \neq 0$.
- (ii) Test the hypothesis $H_0: \beta_2 = 0$ against $H_1: \beta_2 \neq 0$.
- (iii) Test the hypothesis $H_0: \beta_1 = \beta_2$ against $H_1: \beta_1 \neq \beta_2$.
42. A production function model is specified as $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + \epsilon_i$ where Y_i is output, X_{1i} is labour input and X_{2i} is capital input. The data over a sample of 10 firms and observations are measured as deviations from the sample means:
- | X_{1i} | X_{2i} | Y_i |
|----------|----------|-------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 6 | 7 | 8 |
| 7 | 8 | 9 |
| 8 | 9 | 10 |
| 9 | 10 | 11 |
| 10 | 11 | 12 |
- Estimate β_0 , β_1 , β_2 and their standard errors.
- (i) Find R^2 and adjusted R^2 .
- (ii) Test the hypothesis that $\beta_1 = \beta_2$.
- (iii) Suppose now that you wish to impose the a priori restriction that $\beta_1 = \beta_2$. What is the least squares estimate of β_1 and its standard error? What is the value of F in this case? Compare these results with those obtained in (ii) and comment.
43. The following table shows 10 sets of values of three variables Y (dependent variable) and X_1 and X_2 (two independent variables):
- | Y | X_1 | X_2 |
|-----|-------|-------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 6 | 7 | 8 |
| 7 | 8 | 9 |
| 8 | 9 | 10 |
| 9 | 10 | 11 |
| 10 | 11 | 12 |
- (i) Consider a model of the form $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + \epsilon_i$. Find the least squares regression equation of Y on X_1 and X_2 .
- (ii) Compute the coefficient of multiple determination and the standard errors of the estimated parameters and conduct test of significance.
- (iii) Construct 95 percent confidence intervals for the population parameters and r^2 .
- (iv) Find the explained and unexplained variation in Y .

1. The following table shows the output of a regression model estimated using the following data:
- | Year | Y | X |
|------|-----|----|
| 2010 | 100 | 10 |
| 2011 | 120 | 12 |
| 2012 | 140 | 14 |
| 2013 | 160 | 16 |
| 2014 | 180 | 18 |
| 2015 | 200 | 20 |
| 2016 | 220 | 22 |
| 2017 | 240 | 24 |
| 2018 | 260 | 26 |
| 2019 | 280 | 28 |
| 2020 | 300 | 30 |
2. The regression model is given by:
- $$Y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_t + \epsilon_t$$
3. The following table shows the values of the parameters estimated in the regression model:
- | Parameter | Value |
|-----------|-------|
| β_0 | 10 |
| β_1 | 10 |
4. The following table shows the values of the predicted values of Y for a given value of X:
- | X | Y |
|----|-----|
| 10 | 110 |
| 12 | 122 |
| 14 | 134 |
| 16 | 146 |
| 18 | 158 |
| 20 | 170 |
| 22 | 182 |
| 24 | 194 |
| 26 | 206 |
| 28 | 218 |
| 30 | 230 |
5. The following table shows the values of the residuals:
- | Year | Y | X | Residual |
|------|-----|----|----------|
| 2010 | 100 | 10 | -10 |
| 2011 | 120 | 12 | -8 |
| 2012 | 140 | 14 | -6 |
| 2013 | 160 | 16 | -4 |
| 2014 | 180 | 18 | -2 |
| 2015 | 200 | 20 | 0 |
| 2016 | 220 | 22 | 2 |
| 2017 | 240 | 24 | 4 |
| 2018 | 260 | 26 | 6 |
| 2019 | 280 | 28 | 8 |
| 2020 | 300 | 30 | 10 |
6. The following table shows the values of the total sum of squares (TSS), the explained sum of squares (ESS), and the unexplained sum of squares (USS):
- | Sum of Squares | Value |
|----------------|-------|
| TSS | 1000 |
| ESS | 800 |
| USS | 200 |
7. The following table shows the values of the coefficient of determination (R^2) and the adjusted coefficient of determination (\bar{R}^2):
- | Coefficient | Value |
|-------------|-------|
| R^2 | 0.8 |
| \bar{R}^2 | 0.75 |
8. The following table shows the values of the F-statistic and the p-value:
- | Statistic | Value |
|-------------|--------|
| F-statistic | 16 |
| p-value | 0.0001 |
9. The following table shows the values of the t-statistic and the p-value:
- | Statistic | Value |
|-------------|--------|
| t-statistic | 10 |
| p-value | 0.0001 |
10. The following table shows the values of the Durbin-Watson statistic and the p-value:
- | Statistic | Value |
|---------------|--------|
| Durbin-Watson | 1.5 |
| p-value | 0.0001 |

Year	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020
Y	100	120	140	160	180	200	220	240	260	280	300
X	10	12	14	16	18	20	22	24	26	28	30
Y	100	120	140	160	180	200	220	240	260	280	300
X	10	12	14	16	18	20	22	24	26	28	30

11. Estimate the regression function $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \epsilon$.
12. What is the economic meaning of your estimates?
13. Construct tests of significance for the β parameters at 5% and 1% levels of significance.
14. Compute R^2 and adjusted R^2 .

15. The following table includes the output of the above input data and the total cost of 5 firms of the electrical industry.

Firm	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Y (000 units)	60	120	180	240	300	360	420	480
X (hours)	100	1200	1400	1600	1800	2000	2200	2400
K (machine hours)	700	800	900	1000	1100	1200	1300	1400
Y	60	120	180	240	300	360	420	480
X	100	1200	1400	1600	1800	2000	2200	2400
K	700	800	900	1000	1100	1200	1300	1400

16. Fit a Cobb-Douglas production function to the above data $Y = A L^{\alpha} K^{\beta}$.
17. Construct appropriate tests of significance of the parameter estimates at 5% and 1% levels of significance.
18. What are the marginal and average productivities of the factors L and K?
19. What do your results suggest regarding the returns to scale?

47. The following table shows the price index of durables, the average consumption, and the expenditure on durables of a typical household in a country.

Year	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988
Expenditure on durables, Y , in £	5	10	11.5	5	40	80	15	45	
Income, X , in £	855	2000	2100	2440	2750	3355	3955	4915	5500
Price index (Z)	100	95	95	95	95	95	100	105	110

- (i) Fit a regression line to the function $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 Z + u$.
 (ii) Test your results by using the Analysis of variance table.
48. The following table shows the consumption of tobacco manufacturers, consumer income, and the price of tobacco manufacturers for tobacco during 1950-1990.

Year	Consumption (million tons) D	Income (million £) X	Price of tobacco (pence per kg) Z
1950	59,190	6,200	2.50
1951	63,450	91,700	24.44
1952	62,760	96,700	12.77
1953	64,700	111,600	12.40
1954	67,400	119,800	31.13
1955	64,440	129,200	24.44
1956	68,000	143,400	15.30
1957	72,400	159,600	18.70
1958	75,710	180,000	10.83
1959	70,600	190,000	44.68

- (i) Fit a linear regression $D = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 Z + u$ and a log-linear function of the constant elasticity type $D = \beta_0 X^{\beta_1} Z^{\beta_2} + u$.
 (ii) Conduct tests of significance using the analysis of variance table.
 (iii) Compute the price and income elasticity of the two functions.
49. In a multiple regression equation $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + u$ explain how you would test the joint hypothesis $\beta_1 = \beta_2$ and $\beta_2 = 1$.
50. Consider the following regression model: $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + u_i$, where $u_i \sim N(0, \sigma_u^2)$. The following data set are given below:
- | | | | | | |
|-------|---|---|---|---|---|
| Y | 4 | 7 | 3 | 9 | 7 |
| X_1 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 5 | 9 |
| X_2 | 5 | 3 | 2 | 7 | |
- (i) Estimate β_0 , β_1 , and β_2 .
 (ii) Find out $\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_0)$, $\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1)$, $\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_2)$, and $\text{cov}(\hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2)$.

- (i) Find β_0, β_1 and β_2
- (ii) Write the regression equation
- (iii) Find R^2 and R
- (iv) Write the regression results in the customary form
- (v) Test whether β_0, β_1 and β_2 are significant or not at 5% level of significance
- (vi) Find out the point predictor of Y when $X_1 = 44$ and $X_2 = 60$
- (vii) Construct 95% confidence interval of π_1
- (viii) Construct 95% confidence interval of the prediction

55. Eight students made the following scores in physics and chemistry subject. Fit the linear regression equation of their chemistry score X and test score Y .

Students	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Physics score X	43	48	51	58	55	52	56	59
Test score Y	25	34	38	43	40	38	42	45
Final score Z	68	74	79	80	78	75	78	80

Assume a linear regression equation of the form

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \epsilon, \quad \epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$$

- (i) Find $\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2$
 - (ii) Find $\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_0), \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1), \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_2)$ and $\text{cov}(\hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2)$
 - (iii) Find R^2 and adjusted R^2
 - (iv) Write the regression results in the customary form
 - (v) Test whether β_0, β_1 and β_2 are significant or not at 5% level of significance
 - (vi) Find out the point predictor of Y when $X_1 = 44$ and $X_2 = 60$
 - (vii) Construct 95% confidence interval of π_1
 - (viii) Construct 95% confidence interval of the prediction
56. Following exercise-50, find the regression results by using Analysis of variance table
57. Following exercise-51, test the regression results by using Analysis of variance table
58. The following table shows monthly income (X_1), monthly savings (Y), age (X_2) of 10 persons.

Y	2000	8000	10000	20000	30000	35000	35000	40000	40000	40000
X_1	0.000	20.000	25.000	30.000	40.000	45.000	50.000	55.000	60.000	70.000
X_2	22	24	26	28	31	33	36	38	39	40

Assume a linear regression model $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \beta_2 x^2 + \epsilon$ where $\epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$.

and assume β_1 as a function of β_2 is $\beta_1 = 40 - 4\beta_2$ if 40 years of age
if 40 years of age

(i) Find β_0 , β_1 and β_2

(ii) Find R^2 and adjusted R^2

(iii) Write the regression results in the numerical form

(iv) Test whether β_0 , β_1 and β_2 are significant or not at 5% level of significance

(v) A 95% confidence interval of β_1

55. The following regression was estimated from a random sample of 1000 parents

$$\hat{Y}_i = 0.041 + 0.42 X_{1i} + 0.11 X_{2i} + 0.17 X_{3i} + 0.17 X_{4i}$$

$$(0.7) \quad (0.27) \quad (3.37) \quad (5.40) \quad (3.17)$$

where X_{1i} is the child's age and X_{2i} is the child's sex. Explain the implied pattern of wage variation and interpret the results.

56. You are given the following regression results

$$\hat{Y}_i = 16.898 - 2972.5 X_i, R^2 = 0.6149$$

$$SE = 5.552, t = -4.77(0.000)$$

$$F = 22.742, 174, F = 23.33, R^2 = 0.7706$$

$$t = 3.77(0.000), F = 14.07(0.000), t = 3.77(0.000)$$

Can you find out the sample size underlying these results?

Hints: Use the relationship among R^2 , F and t values.

57. From the data for 48 States in the United States for a given year the following regression results were obtained

$$\log \hat{Q} = 4.20 + 1.34 \log P + 0.17 \log Y$$

$$SE = (0.91) \quad (0.32) \quad (0.20) \quad \bar{R}^2 = 0.27$$

where Q = units of consumption of a commodity per year

P = real price per unit of the commodity

Y = per capita real disposable income

(i) What is the elasticity of demand for the commodity with respect to price? Is it statistically significant? If so, is it statistically different from 1?

(ii) What is the income elasticity of demand for the commodity? Is it statistically significant?

(iii) How would you retrieve R^2 from \bar{R}^2 given above?

58. From a sample of 269 firms the following regression results were obtained

$$\log \text{salary} = 4.52 + 0.280 \log (\text{sales}) - 0.0174 \text{size} - 0.0024 \text{age}, R^2 = 0.77$$

$$SE = (0.32) \quad (0.035) \quad (0.0061) \quad (0.0054)$$

where $\text{salary} = \text{salary of CEO}$

$\text{excess} = \text{annual firm return}$

$\text{size} = \text{return on equity in previous}$

$\text{ret} = \text{return on firm's stock}$

Interpret the regression as follows:

have shown the signs of the various coefficients

(i) Which of the coefficients are significant?

(ii) What is the effect of a percentage point increase in

(iii) How do you interpret the coefficient of the constant term?

on salary?

58. Consider the following wage determination model:

period 1980-1990

$W = 11.522 + 0.103P + 0.00001P^2 - 0.0000001P^3$

where $W = \text{wages and salaries per employee}$

$P = \text{price of final output in the economy}$

$U = \text{unemployment in the economy as a percentage}$

$t = \text{time}$

Interpret the regression equation

(i) Are the estimated coefficients individually significant?

(ii) What is the rationale for the introduction of P^2 and P^3 ?

(iii) How would you compute elasticity of wages and salaries per employee with respect to unemployment rate U ?

59. Consider the following data set:

X_1	1	2	3
X_2	1	2	3
X_3	2	1	1

Based on above data, estimate the following regressions:

$$X_1 = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 X_2 + u_1 \quad (1)$$

$$X_2 = \lambda_0 + \lambda_1 X_3 + u_2 \quad (2)$$

$$X_3 = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + u_3 \quad (3)$$

Estimate the regression coefficients in each case

(i) Is $\alpha_1 = \beta_1$? Why or why not?

(ii) Is $\lambda_1 = \beta_2$? Why or why not?

What important conclusion do you draw from this exercise?

60. From the following data estimate the partial regression coefficients, their standard errors and the adjusted and unadjusted R^2 values:

$$\bar{Y} = 367.893, \quad \bar{X} = 402.760, \quad S_{XX} = 81$$

$$\sum(X_i - \bar{X})^2 = 66042.269, \quad \sum(X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y}) = 84855.046$$

$$\Sigma(x_1 - \bar{x})(x_2 - \bar{x}) = 240.000 \quad \Sigma(x_1 - \bar{x})(x_3 - \bar{x}) = 18.778 \quad 146$$

$$\Sigma(x_2 - \bar{x})(x_3 - \bar{x}) = 4250.000 \quad \Sigma(x_4 - \bar{x})(x_5 - \bar{x}) = 4796.000 \quad n = 5$$

62. Is it possible to obtain the following from a set of data ?

(i) $r_{12} = 0.9$, $r_{23} = 0.2$, $r_{13} = 0.4$

(ii) $r_{12} = 0.4$, $r_{23} = 0.9$, $r_{13} = 0.5$

(iii) $r_{12} = 0.01$, $r_{13} = 0.66$, $r_{23} = 0.7$

63. The regression child mortality (CM_i) on per capita GNP ($PGNP_i$) and the female literacy rate (FLR_i) for a sample of 64 countries is given below

$$\widehat{CM}_i = 263.64 - 0.0056 PGNP_i - 2.236 FLR_i$$

$$SE = (11.9432) \quad (0.0019) \quad (0.2099)$$

$$R^2 = 0.7077, \quad \bar{R}^2 = 0.6981$$

- (i) Interpret the regression results
- (ii) What about the statistical significance of the observed results ?
- (iii) Is the coefficient of PGNP of -0.0056 statistically significant ?
- (iv) Is the coefficient of FLR of -2.2316 statistically significant ?
- (v) Are both the coefficients statistically significant jointly ?

4

Violations of Classical Assumptions: The Problems of Heteroscedasticity, Autocorrelation and Multicollinearity

4.1 Introduction

Let us consider a two variable linear regression model $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + u$, where y is the dependent variable, x is the independent variable, β_0 and β_1 are the parameters to be estimated and u is the disturbance term. The classical linear regression model (CLRM) is based on the following assumptions:

- i. u is a random variable
- ii. $E(u) = 0$ for each i
- iii. $Var(u_i) = \sigma_u^2$ (i.e. constant)
- iv. $Cov(u_i, u_j) = E(u_i u_j) = 0$ for $i \neq j$
- v. x is non-stochastic or non-random

We now put special consideration of assumptions i, ii, iii and iv.

Assumption i means that the variance of the disturbance term is constant. This is a feature of the probability distribution of the disturbance term. The disturbance term is assumed to be normally distributed. The feature of homogeneity of variance (or constant variance) is known as homoscedasticity. It may be the case, however, that all of the disturbance terms do not have the same variance. This condition of non-constant variance or non-homogeneity of variance is known as heteroscedasticity. Thus we say that u is heteroscedastic when $Var(u_i) \neq \sigma_u^2$ (i.e. σ_u^2 is a constant value) but $Var(u_i) = \sigma_{u_i}^2$ (i.e. $\sigma_{u_i}^2$ is a variable).

Also we should not assume that each disturbance term has the same expected value equal to zero (i.e. $E(u_i) = 0$).

If all the disturbance terms have expected value zero and same variance σ_u^2 , then we say that all the disturbance terms are identically distributed.

If iv is also satisfied, it means that the different disturbance terms are independent of each other. So, when i, ii, iii and iv are satisfied, then we can say that the different disturbance terms are identically and independently distributed.

If the disturbance term varies from observation to observation, the different disturbance terms are not identically distributed.

Here $Var(u_i) = E(u_i^2) = \sigma_u^2 + \sigma_{u_i}^2$ when $i \neq j$

This is the problem of *Heteroscedasticity*. The CLRM assumes that variance of the disturbance term is constant and if it is not constant, then the problem of

Let y_t be the value of the variable y at time t . The model is then written as

$$y_t = \mu + \epsilon_t$$

where μ is the mean and ϵ_t is the disturbance term. The disturbance term is assumed to be independent of the mean and to have a constant variance σ^2 .

where μ is the mean and ϵ_t is the disturbance term. The disturbance term is assumed to be independent of the mean and to have a constant variance σ^2 .

The above assumption is not satisfied if the disturbance term is not independent of the mean. In this case, the model is written as

$$y_t = \mu + \epsilon_t$$

where μ is the mean and ϵ_t is the disturbance term. The disturbance term is assumed to be independent of the mean and to have a constant variance σ^2 .

Autocorrelation is a special case of correlation. It refers to the relationship between the successive values of the same variable in different periods. While correlation refers to the relationship between two or more different variables, an autocorrelation shows a variable in the time series against y_{t-k} for some fixed k . The autocorrelation is the ratio of the covariance of y_t and y_{t-k} to the variance of y_t . If the autocorrelation is zero, it means that the values of y_t and y_{t-k} are independent. If the autocorrelation is not zero, it means that the values of y_t and y_{t-k} are dependent. The autocorrelation is a measure of the degree of dependence between the values of y_t and y_{t-k} . If the autocorrelation is zero, it means that the values of y_t and y_{t-k} are independent. If the autocorrelation is not zero, it means that the values of y_t and y_{t-k} are dependent.

Thus, in the presence of autocorrelation, the different disturbance terms are not independent of each other. This means that ϵ_t is not independent of ϵ_{t-k} . The zero assumption is no more valid when the disturbance in one period is dependent on not independent disturbance.

In both the assumptions (i) and (ii) of TLM are violated if there is the problem of heteroscedasticity as well as the problem of autocorrelation.

4.2 Matrix Representation of Autocorrelation and Heteroscedasticity

If we consider the disturbance matrix as square-covariance matrix of the disturbance vector

$$Q_{xx} = E(\epsilon\epsilon') \text{ where } \epsilon = \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon_1 \\ \epsilon_2 \\ \vdots \\ \epsilon_n \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \epsilon = \epsilon_1 + \epsilon_2 + \dots + \epsilon_n$$

where ϵ_t is the value of the disturbance term at time t . The matrix Q_{xx} is the covariance matrix of the disturbance vector. It is a square matrix of order n . The diagonal elements of Q_{xx} are the variances of the disturbance terms. The off-diagonal elements of Q_{xx} are the covariances of the disturbance terms. If the disturbance terms are independent, the off-diagonal elements of Q_{xx} are zero. If the disturbance terms are not independent, the off-diagonal elements of Q_{xx} are not zero. The matrix Q_{xx} is symmetric, i.e., $Q_{xx} = Q_{xx}'$.

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$$Q_{xx} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & \sigma_{12} & \dots & \sigma_{1n} \\ \sigma_{21} & \sigma_2^2 & \dots & \sigma_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \sigma_{n1} & \sigma_{n2} & \dots & \sigma_n^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

... the error term u_i is correlated with the regressors X_i ...
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4.3 Consequences of the Problem of Autocorrelation and Heteroscedasticity

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4.4 Consequences of the Problem of Heteroscedasticity

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The OLS estimator of β is defined by
$$\hat{\beta} = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i X_i' \right)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i y_i$$

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where $\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_k$ are the parameters to be estimated.

If $\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_k$ are the parameters to be estimated.

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \beta_2 x_i^2 + \dots + \beta_k x_i^k + \epsilon_i$$

where ϵ_i is the error term, and $\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_k$ are the parameters to be estimated.

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4.3 Method for Estimating Regression Parameters in the Presence of the Problem of Heteroscedasticity

where $\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_k$ are the parameters to be estimated.

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$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \beta_2 x_i^2 + \dots + \beta_k x_i^k + \epsilon_i$$

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$$\sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2$$

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$$\sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2$$

$$\text{var}(\hat{\beta}) = \frac{\sigma^2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}{\left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 \right)^2} \left[\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 \right]$$

where $\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_k$ are the parameters to be estimated.

where $\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_k$ are the parameters to be estimated.

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \beta_2 x_i^2 + \dots + \beta_k x_i^k + \epsilon_i$$

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where $\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_k$ are the parameters to be estimated.

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$$\sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2$$

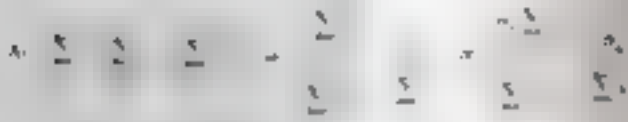
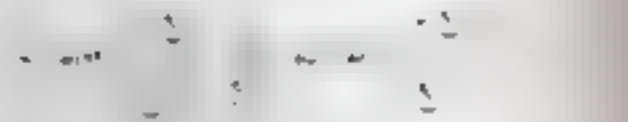
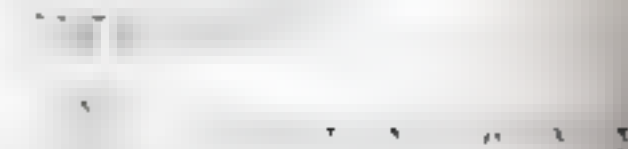
$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \beta_2 x_i^2 + \dots + \beta_k x_i^k + \epsilon_i$$

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$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \beta_2 x_i^2 + \dots + \beta_k x_i^k + \epsilon_i$$

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \beta_2 x_i^2 + \dots + \beta_k x_i^k + \epsilon_i$$

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \beta_2 x_i^2 + \dots + \beta_k x_i^k + \epsilon_i$$



$$T = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2}$$

2. We have shown that the parameter β derived by (1) is a better estimate than the variance of β .

In this sense, the χ^2 method is more appropriate to a model which is subject to the problem of heteroscedasticity.

(Note: Heteroscedasticity may also be said to be the case if σ^2 is a function of x .)

4.5 Tests for Heteroscedasticity

There are three important tests for heteroscedasticity:

1. Spearman Rank correlation test
2. Kendall's tau test
3. Levene's test

All these test criteria are based on the χ^2 method.

Let us consider the following model: $Y = \alpha + \beta X + \epsilon$ where

where ϵ is the error term, α and β are parameters to be estimated.

Let $\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2, \dots, \epsilon_n$ be the error terms for the n observations.

Let $\epsilon = (\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2, \dots, \epsilon_n)'$ be the vector of error terms.

4.6 Spearman's Rank Correlation Test

Let $\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2, \dots, \epsilon_n$ be the error terms for the n observations.

Let $\epsilon = (\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2, \dots, \epsilon_n)'$ be the vector of error terms.

Let $\epsilon = (\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2, \dots, \epsilon_n)'$ be the vector of error terms.

$$\epsilon = (\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2, \dots, \epsilon_n)'$$

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Let $\epsilon = (\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2, \dots, \epsilon_n)'$ be the vector of error terms.

4.7 Kendall's Tau and Quade Test

Let $\epsilon = (\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2, \dots, \epsilon_n)'$ be the vector of error terms.

Let $\epsilon = (\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2, \dots, \epsilon_n)'$ be the vector of error terms.

Let $\epsilon = (\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2, \dots, \epsilon_n)'$ be the vector of error terms.

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Let $\epsilon = (\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2, \dots, \epsilon_n)'$ be the vector of error terms.

Since the disturbance term u_i is uncorrelated with x_i , the error term u_i is uncorrelated with x_i . This is the same as the error term u_i is uncorrelated with x_i .

$$\text{Thus } E(u_i) = 0$$

Since the error term u_i is uncorrelated with x_i , the error term u_i is uncorrelated with x_i .

4.1 Mean, Variance and Covariance of the Autocorrelated Disturbance Variable

1. Mean of the autocorrelated u_i 's

$$E(u_i) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n u_i = 0$$

By the assumption of the autocorrelated disturbance term, we have $E(u_i) = 0$.

2. Variance of the autocorrelated u_i 's

By definition, $\sigma^2 = E(u_i^2)$.

$$\sigma^2 = E(u_i^2)$$

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n u_i^2$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n u_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n u_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n u_i^2$$

$$E(u_i^2) = \sigma^2$$

$$E(u_i^2) = \sigma^2$$

$$\text{if } u_i = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n u_i$$

3. Covariance of the autocorrelated u_i 's

$$\text{Since } u_i = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n u_i$$

$$\text{and } u_i = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n u_i$$

$$\text{Thus, } \text{Cov}(u_i, u_j) = E(u_i u_j) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n u_i u_j$$

$$E(u_i u_j) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n u_i u_j$$

$$E(u_i u_j) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n u_i u_j$$

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$$E(u_i u_j) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n u_i u_j$$

Assuming that the error term u_i is uncorrelated with x_i , we have $E(u_i u_j) = 0$.

$$\text{Thus, } E(u_i u_j) = 0$$

4.2 Consequences of Autocorrelation

The autocorrelation term u_i is uncorrelated with x_i and x_j for all i, j . The parameter estimates are affected in the following way:

1. The parameter estimates are unbiased.

$$\text{The parameter estimates are unbiased.}$$

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$$N(\mu, \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2\right)$$

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$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2\right)$$

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1.5.1.1

$$\frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2\right)$$

$$\frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2\right)$$

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$$\frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2\right)$$

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$$\frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2\right)$$

which will be on the basis of which we can then use the OLS method to estimate the parameters of the model.

10.1 The Gauss-Markov Least Squares Method of Estimating Autocorrelation

The Gauss-Markov Least Squares method of estimating autocorrelation is based on the assumption that the error term u_t is a random variable with a constant variance σ^2 and $E(u_t) = 0$.

$$u_t = \rho u_{t-1} + \epsilon_t$$

The Gauss-Markov Least Squares method of estimating autocorrelation is based on the assumption that the error term u_t is a random variable with a constant variance σ^2 and $E(u_t) = 0$. The OLS method of estimating the parameters of the model is based on the assumption that the error term u_t is a random variable with a constant variance σ^2 and $E(u_t) = 0$.

$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_t + u_t$$

This method is used for estimating the parameters of the model.

This method is based on the assumption that the error term u_t is a random variable with a constant variance σ^2 and $E(u_t) = 0$.

11 Methods for Estimating Regression Parameters in the Presence of the Problem of Autocorrelation

When the autocorrelation is detected, the appropriate method to use is the OLS method. The OLS method is based on the assumption that the error term u_t is a random variable with a constant variance σ^2 and $E(u_t) = 0$.

Let the model be given by $y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_t + u_t$

where $u_t = u_{t-1} + \epsilon_t$

If we take a random sample of the model, we can write the model as

$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_t + u_t$$

Now subtracting y_{t-1} from y_t we get

$$y_t - y_{t-1} = \beta_0 - \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_t - \beta_1 x_{t-1} + u_t - u_{t-1}$$

$$u_t = \epsilon_t = \alpha + \beta_1 (x_t - x_{t-1}) + \epsilon_t$$

$$\text{or } y_t = \alpha + \beta_1 x_t + \epsilon_t$$

where $\alpha = \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_{t-1}$ and $\epsilon_t = u_t - u_{t-1}$

Here ϵ_t satisfies all the properties of OLS.

If we take a random sample of the model, we can write the model as $y_t = \alpha + \beta_1 x_t + \epsilon_t$. Because of lagging and subtracting, we can apply OLS to the transformed model. Let α and β_1 be the parameters of the model.

$$y_t = \alpha + \beta_1 x_t + \epsilon_t \quad \text{and} \quad \epsilon_t = \rho \epsilon_{t-1} + \eta_t$$

where η_t is a random variable with a constant variance σ^2 and $E(\eta_t) = 0$.

The OLS method of estimating the parameters of the model is based on the assumption that the error term ϵ_t is a random variable with a constant variance σ^2 and $E(\epsilon_t) = 0$.

$$y_t = \alpha + \beta_1 x_t + \epsilon_t$$

$$y_t = \alpha + \beta_1 x_t + \epsilon_t \quad \text{where } \epsilon_t = \rho \epsilon_{t-1} + \eta_t$$

Let us assume that

1. The error term ϵ_t is a random variable with a constant variance σ^2 and $E(\epsilon_t) = 0$.

2. The error term ϵ_t is a random variable with a constant variance σ^2 and $E(\epsilon_t) = 0$.

3. The error term ϵ_t is a random variable with a constant variance σ^2 and $E(\epsilon_t) = 0$.

4. The error term ϵ_t is a random variable with a constant variance σ^2 and $E(\epsilon_t) = 0$.

Method 1: Using the OLS method to estimate the parameters of the model.

Let us assume that the error term ϵ_t is a random variable with a constant variance σ^2 and $E(\epsilon_t) = 0$.

Let us assume that the error term ϵ_t is a random variable with a constant variance σ^2 and $E(\epsilon_t) = 0$.

Let us assume that the error term ϵ_t is a random variable with a constant variance σ^2 and $E(\epsilon_t) = 0$.

$$y_t = \alpha + \beta_1 x_t + \epsilon_t$$

$$y_t = \alpha + \beta_1 x_t + \epsilon_t$$

Let us assume that the error term ϵ_t is a random variable with a constant variance σ^2 and $E(\epsilon_t) = 0$.

Let us assume that the error term ϵ_t is a random variable with a constant variance σ^2 and $E(\epsilon_t) = 0$.

Method 2: Estimation of ρ from the OLS method.

Let us assume that the error term ϵ_t is a random variable with a constant variance σ^2 and $E(\epsilon_t) = 0$.

$$y_t = \alpha + \beta_1 x_t + \epsilon_t$$

Let us assume that the error term ϵ_t is a random variable with a constant variance σ^2 and $E(\epsilon_t) = 0$.

$$y_t = \alpha + \beta_1 x_t + \epsilon_t$$

Let us assume that the error term ϵ_t is a random variable with a constant variance σ^2 and $E(\epsilon_t) = 0$.

Let us assume that the error term ϵ_t is a random variable with a constant variance σ^2 and $E(\epsilon_t) = 0$. This is the case for large samples.

Assume that the error term ϵ_t is

$$\epsilon_t = \rho \epsilon_{t-1} + \eta_t$$

and that the error term η_t is independent and identically distributed as $N(0, \sigma^2)$.

Let

$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_t + \epsilon_t$$

be the regression equation in Table 4.1

where ϵ_t is the error term in the regression equation.

Let $\hat{\epsilon}_t$ be the residuals from the regression

$$\hat{\epsilon}_t = y_t - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_t$$

$$= y_t - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_t$$

Let

$$\hat{\epsilon}_t = y_t - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_t$$

Let

$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_t + \epsilon_t$$

$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_t + \epsilon_t$$

$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_t + \epsilon_t$$

Let the regression model in the transformed form be

$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_t + \epsilon_t$$

Let the regression model in terms of the original variables be

$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_t + \epsilon_t$$

4.2 Estimation by Levels versus First Differences

Let us now return to the hypothesis of zero serial correlation. What is the best

way to test this hypothesis? One way is to transform all the variables by first differences. This is because if the error term ϵ_t is independent and identically distributed as $N(0, \sigma^2)$, then the error term ϵ_t is independent and identically distributed as $N(0, \sigma^2)$.

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—

Figure 2 is a line graph showing the relationship between the logarithm of the number of cells ($\log N$) and the logarithm of the number of cells ($\log N$). The y-axis is labeled $\log N$ and ranges from 0 to 10. The x-axis is labeled $\log N$ and ranges from 0 to 10. The graph shows a series of data points forming a curve that starts at (0,0) and increases, with a slight plateau around $\log N = 5$. The curve is labeled $\log N$ and $\log N$.

1

Handwritten musical notation on staves, featuring square notes and various rhythmic markings. The notation is arranged in two columns, with the left column containing more notes and the right column containing fewer, possibly indicating a different part of the music or a different voice part.

[illegible]

A 1974 Billingsville, Virginia, Police Department and Sheriff's Office.

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In return, neither of the sides is: *turning away* *itself* from

1. *התאחדות העובדים* – *התאחדות העובדים* היא
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 10. *התאחדות העובדים* – *התאחדות העובדים* היא

1. *What is the purpose of the study?*
 2. *What are the research objectives?*
 3. *What is the research methodology?*
 4. *What are the results of the study?*
 5. *What are the conclusions of the study?*
 6. *What are the limitations of the study?*
 7. *What are the implications of the study?*
 8. *What are the future research directions?*
 9. *What are the references of the study?*
 10. *What are the appendices of the study?*

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1 J. J. van Marrewijk and H. van den Hul

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If there is to be multiple measures

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Table 1. The results of the regression analysis of the effect of the variables on the dependent variable

At the same time, it is not clear how the parameters within the proposed FCM model can be determined in the research model.

Figure 1

| Year | Age | Sex | Number of cases | Rate per 100,000 | Rate per 1,000,000 |
|------|----------|-------|-----------------|------------------|--------------------|
| 1990 | 15-19 | M | 1 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1990 | 15-19 | F | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1990 | 20-24 | M | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1990 | 20-24 | F | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1990 | 25-29 | M | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1990 | 25-29 | F | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1990 | 30-34 | M | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1990 | 30-34 | F | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1990 | 35-39 | M | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1990 | 35-39 | F | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1990 | 40-44 | M | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1990 | 40-44 | F | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1990 | 45-49 | M | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1990 | 45-49 | F | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1990 | 50-54 | M | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1990 | 50-54 | F | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1990 | 55-59 | M | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1990 | 55-59 | F | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1990 | 60-64 | M | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1990 | 60-64 | F | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1990 | 65-69 | M | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1990 | 65-69 | F | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1990 | 70-74 | M | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1990 | 70-74 | F | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1990 | 75-79 | M | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1990 | 75-79 | F | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1990 | 80-84 | M | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1990 | 80-84 | F | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1990 | 85-89 | M | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1990 | 85-89 | F | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1990 | 90-94 | M | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1990 | 90-94 | F | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1990 | 95-99 | M | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1990 | 95-99 | F | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1990 | All ages | M | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1990 | All ages | F | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1990 | All ages | Total | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1991 | 15-19 | M | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1991 | 15-19 | F | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1991 | 20-24 | M | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1991 | 20-24 | F | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1991 | 25-29 | M | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1991 | 25-29 | F | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1991 | 30-34 | M | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1991 | 30-34 | F | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1991 | 35-39 | M | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1991 | 35-39 | F | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1991 | 40-44 | M | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1991 | 40-44 | F | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1991 | 45-49 | M | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1991 | 45-49 | F | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1991 | 50-54 | M | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1991 | 50-54 | F | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1991 | 55-59 | M | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1991 | 55-59 | F | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1991 | 60-64 | M | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1991 | 60-64 | F | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1991 | 65-69 | M | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1991 | 65-69 | F | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1991 | 70-74 | M | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1991 | 70-74 | F | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1991 | 75-79 | M | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1991 | 75-79 | F | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1991 | 80-84 | M | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1991 | 80-84 | F | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1991 | 85-89 | M | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1991 | 85-89 | F | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1991 | 90-94 | M | 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 1991 | | | | | |

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TABLE 1. *Estimated and observed values of the parameters of the model*

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* See also the commentary by J. H. van der Pijl and J. A. M. M. van't Hof-Grootenboer.

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| | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|--------|------|----------|---------|---|----|------|-------|----|-----------------|----------------|
| M | factor | in % | antennae | treated | P | B. | B. h | A. h. | d. | HV ⁷ | d ¹ |
|---|--------|------|----------|---------|---|----|------|-------|----|-----------------|----------------|

as \mathbb{R}^n -valued processes $(X_t)_{t \geq 0}$, the variance of \hat{X}_t and \hat{X}_s , $s, t \geq 0$

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$$m_{\text{eff}} = \frac{m}{1 + \frac{\gamma_{\text{eff}}}{\gamma_0}}$$

WILKINSON, M. A. 1993. The effects of habitat fragmentation on the ecology of *Myrica gale* sedge beds in a lowland river: a review. *Journal of Ecology* 81:1053-1064.

$$\|\tilde{A}_k\| = \frac{n_k}{(1-\gamma)^{\frac{1}{n_k}} + \gamma} \leq \frac{r_{\max}^{\frac{1}{n_k}}}{1-\gamma},$$
 and since r_{\max} is finite we get

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{1}{2} m v^2 \right) = \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{1}{2} m \frac{dx}{dt} \frac{dx}{dt} \right) = m \frac{dx}{dt} \frac{d^2 x}{dt^2} = m v \frac{d^2 x}{dt^2}$$

4.2.1 The Joint Multicollinearity and Its Consequences

The joint multicollinearity is a property of the regression model

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots + \beta_k x_k + \epsilon$$

and

$$x_1 = c_1 x_2 + \dots + c_k x_k$$

where c_1, c_2, \dots, c_k are constants, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k are the predictors of y

and c_1, c_2, \dots, c_k are not all zero. The hypothesis is as follows:

Let β_1 be the sampling error of the estimator

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum (x_1 - \bar{x}_1)(y - \bar{y})}{\sum (x_1 - \bar{x}_1)^2}$$

then the variance of $\hat{\beta}_1$ is given by

$$\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \frac{\sigma^2}{\sum (x_1 - \bar{x}_1)^2}$$

It

$$\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \frac{\sigma^2}{\sum (x_1 - \bar{x}_1)^2}$$

$$\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \frac{\sigma^2}{\sum (x_1 - \bar{x}_1)^2}$$

there

and

$$x_1 = c_1 x_2 + \dots + c_k x_k$$

$$x_1 = c_1 x_2 + \dots + c_k x_k$$

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 &= c_1 x_2 + \dots + c_k x_k \\ x_1 &= c_1 x_2 + \dots + c_k x_k \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1)}{\sigma^2} &= \frac{1}{\sum (x_1 - \bar{x}_1)^2} \\ \frac{\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1)}{\sigma^2} &= \frac{1}{\sum (x_1 - \bar{x}_1)^2} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \frac{\sigma^2}{\sum (x_1 - \bar{x}_1)^2}$$

$$x_1 = c_1 x_2 + \dots + c_k x_k$$

$$x_1 = c_1 x_2 + \dots + c_k x_k$$

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$$x_1 = c_1 x_2 + \dots + c_k x_k$$

$$x_1 = c_1 x_2 + \dots + c_k x_k$$

the expression is said that β_1, β_2 is the sampling error of the estimator depends on the correlation coefficient between x_1 and x_2

$$\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \frac{\sigma^2}{\sum (x_1 - \bar{x}_1)^2}$$

we show that the sampling error of the estimator $\hat{\beta}_1$ depends on the square value of the correlation coefficient between x_1 and x_2

Thus, to give the degree of multicollinearity the higher will be the variance of $\hat{\beta}_1$ estimator of the parameters. In other words, if r_{12}^2 or $|\beta_{12}|$ is high,

variances of $\hat{\beta}_1$ and $\hat{\beta}_2$ are also high. Hence the BLUE property of the estimators are not possible. This can be proved as follows:

Proof: We know that for a three variable linear regression model, variance-covariance matrix of $\hat{\beta}$ is given by $(X'X)^{-1} \sigma^2$. See Section 3.2:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_1) &= \frac{\sigma^2}{\sum (x_1 - \bar{x}_1)^2} \\ \text{var}(\hat{\beta}_2) &= \frac{\sigma^2}{\sum (x_2 - \bar{x}_2)^2} \end{aligned}$$

data is the square of the distance from the regression line to the data point. The sum of these squares is the total sum of squares. The sum of squares due to the regression is the sum of squares of the predicted values. The sum of squares due to the error is the sum of squares of the residuals.

The total sum of squares is the sum of the squares of the residuals and the squares of the predicted values. The sum of squares due to the regression is the sum of squares of the predicted values. The sum of squares due to the error is the sum of squares of the residuals.

The sum of squares due to the regression is the sum of squares of the predicted values.

The sum of squares due to the error is the sum of squares of the residuals.

From the regression line we can find the predicted value of y for a given value of x . The predicted value of y is the value of y that would be obtained if the regression line were extended to the point (x, y) .

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$$

It should be noted that when $x = 0$, $y = \beta_0$ and when $x = 1$, $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1$. The predicted value of y is the value of y that would be obtained if the regression line were extended to the point (x, y) .

2. Within-subjects ANOVA

Because of the large standard errors the population statistics for the repeated population parameters tend to be large. This is due to the fact that the standard errors are large.

Table 4.3

The effect of increasing collinearity on the 95% confidence interval for β_1

$$b_1 \pm t_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{MSE} \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} + \frac{x^2}{\sum x_i^2}}$$

where $MSE = \frac{SSE}{n-2}$ and $t_{\alpha/2}$ is the critical value of the t -distribution with $n-2$ degrees of freedom.

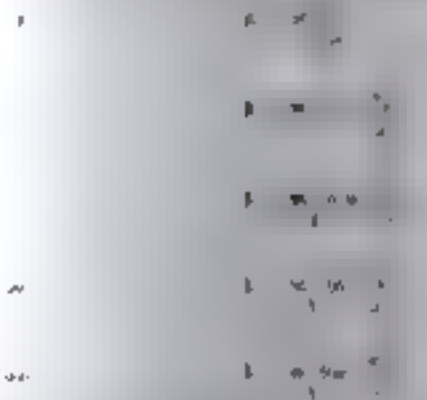


Figure 4.3 shows the 95% confidence interval for β_1 as a function of the collinearity. The confidence interval is shown as a horizontal line segment. As the collinearity increases, the length of the confidence interval increases.

The confidence interval for β_1 is shown as a horizontal line segment. As the collinearity increases, the length of the confidence interval increases.

The confidence interval for β_1 is shown as a horizontal line segment. As the collinearity increases, the length of the confidence interval increases.

The confidence interval for β_1 is shown as a horizontal line segment. As the collinearity increases, the length of the confidence interval increases.

4. A high R^2 and large significant F statistic

The linear regression model with k explanatory variables gives a high R^2 and a large significant F statistic. This indicates that the model is a good fit to the data. The high R^2 indicates that the model explains a large proportion of the variance in the dependent variable. The large significant F statistic indicates that the model is statistically significant.

The high R^2 and large significant F statistic indicate that the model is a good fit to the data.

The high R^2 and large significant F statistic indicate that the model is a good fit to the data. The high R^2 indicates that the model explains a large proportion of the variance in the dependent variable. The large significant F statistic indicates that the model is statistically significant.

Example 4.5 In following this example, we shall deal with the period 1960-1969. In this period, the annual expenditure on the food and services of the household is given by the following data and a part of the model is given below:

Table 4.6

| Year | Expenditure
in Rs. | Price index
in | Quality
index | Price index
in | Expenditure
in Rs. |
|------|-----------------------|-------------------|------------------|-------------------|-----------------------|
| 1960 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| 1961 | 110 | 105 | 105 | 105 | 105 |
| 1962 | 120 | 110 | 110 | 110 | 110 |
| 1963 | 130 | 115 | 115 | 115 | 115 |
| 1964 | 140 | 120 | 120 | 120 | 120 |
| 1965 | 150 | 125 | 125 | 125 | 125 |
| 1966 | 160 | 130 | 130 | 130 | 130 |
| 1967 | 170 | 135 | 135 | 135 | 135 |
| 1968 | 180 | 140 | 140 | 140 | 140 |
| 1969 | 190 | 145 | 145 | 145 | 145 |

Assuming that expenditure is a function of the following variables, we shall try to estimate the parameters of the model:

$$E = \beta_0 + \beta_1 P + \beta_2 Q + \beta_3 P^2 + \beta_4 Q^2 + \beta_5 PQ$$

where E = Expenditure in Rs.

P = Price index

Q = Quality index

P^2 = Price index squared

Q^2 = Quality index squared

By using the following estimated regression results, we shall try to estimate the parameters of the model:

$$E = 100 + 10P + 10Q + 10P^2 + 10Q^2 + 10PQ$$

where E = Expenditure in Rs., P = Price index, Q = Quality index

Applying the above model, we shall try to estimate the parameters of the model.

$$R^2(\text{adjusted}) = \frac{ESS}{TSS} \left(\frac{T-1}{T-k} \right) = \frac{100}{100} \left(\frac{10-1}{10-5} \right) = 0.80$$

where k = number of parameters including the constant intercept = 5

and T = number of years, sample size = 10

From the table value we see that $F_{0.05}(4, 5) = 6.61$ and we reject the null hypothesis.

As the value of F is greater than the critical value, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative that there is a significant relationship between dependent variable and the explanatory variables.

However, all the explanatory variables are not equally significant as can be seen from the sample correlation coefficients.

$$r_{E, P} = 0.998, r_{E, Q} = 0.997, r_{E, P^2} = 0.994, r_{E, Q^2} = 0.973, r_{E, PQ} = 0.991$$

As the effect of multicollinearity we calculate the elementary regression:

$$E = \beta_0 + \beta_1 P + \beta_2 Q + \beta_3 P^2 + \beta_4 Q^2 + \beta_5 PQ$$

$$E = 100 + 10P + 10Q$$

$$E = 100 + 10P + 10Q + \beta_3 P^2 + \beta_4 Q^2 + \beta_5 PQ$$

$$E = 100 + 10P + 10Q$$

$$E = 100 + 10P + 10Q + \beta_3 P^2 + \beta_4 Q^2 + \beta_5 PQ$$

$$E = 100 + 10P + 10Q$$

$$E = 100 + 10P + 10Q + \beta_3 P^2 + \beta_4 Q^2 + \beta_5 PQ$$

$$E = 100 + 10P + 10Q$$

As the effect of multicollinearity is significant, we shall try to estimate the parameters of the model.

As the effect of multicollinearity is significant, we shall try to estimate the parameters of the model.

Results are shown in the following table:

Table 4.7

| | β_0 | β_1 | β_2 | β_3 | β_4 | β_5 |
|---------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| Estimate | 100 | 10 | 10 | 10 | 10 | 10 |
| Standard error | 10 | 10 | 10 | 10 | 10 | 10 |
| t-ratio | 10 | 10 | 10 | 10 | 10 | 10 |
| Probability | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 |
| Partial correlation | 0.998 | 0.997 | 0.994 | 0.973 | 0.991 | 0.991 |
| Adjusted R^2 | 0.80 | 0.80 | 0.80 | 0.80 | 0.80 | 0.80 |
| F-ratio | 6.61 | 6.61 | 6.61 | 6.61 | 6.61 | 6.61 |
| Significance level | 0.05 | 0.05 | 0.05 | 0.05 | 0.05 | 0.05 |

As the effect of multicollinearity is significant, we shall try to estimate the parameters of the model.

As the effect of multicollinearity is significant, we shall try to estimate the parameters of the model.

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Suppose that the following data were obtained from a study of the relationship between the number of hours spent studying and the number of hours spent sleeping.

Hours spent studying (X) Hours spent sleeping (Y)

10 8 12 7 14 6 16 5 18 4

20 7 22 6 24 5 26 4 28 3

30 6 32 5 34 4 36 3 38 2

40 5 42 4 44 3 46 2 48 1

50 4 52 3 54 2 56 1 58 0

10.10 Suggested try-it exercises

1. A study of the relationship between the number of hours spent studying and the number of hours spent sleeping. The following data were obtained from a study of the relationship between the number of hours spent studying and the number of hours spent sleeping.

Hours
spent
studying (X)

10

20 30 40 50

60

Hours spent sleeping (Y)

8

7

6 5 4 3 2 1

2. A study of the relationship between the number of hours spent studying and the number of hours spent sleeping. The following data were obtained from a study of the relationship between the number of hours spent studying and the number of hours spent sleeping.

Hours
spent
studying (X)

10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100

Hours
spent
sleeping (Y)

Suppose that the following data were obtained from a study of the relationship between the number of hours spent studying and the number of hours spent sleeping. The following data were obtained from a study of the relationship between the number of hours spent studying and the number of hours spent sleeping.

10.11 Solutions to the Problem of Multicollinearity

There are six commonly used methods to solve the problem of multicollinearity:

- (1) Dropping of variables
- (2) Ridge regression estimates
- (3) Ridge Regression
- (4) Using ratios or first differences
- (5) Principal component analysis
- (6) Using more data

Suppose that the following data were obtained from a study of the relationship between the number of hours spent studying and the number of hours spent sleeping.

10.12 Dropping of variables

Suppose that the following data were obtained from a study of the relationship between the number of hours spent studying and the number of hours spent sleeping.

Hours spent studying (X) Hours spent sleeping (Y)

10 8 12 7 14 6 16 5 18 4

20 7 22 6 24 5 26 4 28 3

30 6 32 5 34 4 36 3 38 2

40 5 42 4 44 3 46 2 48 1

50 4 52 3 54 2 56 1 58 0

Suppose that the following data were obtained from a study of the relationship between the number of hours spent studying and the number of hours spent sleeping.

Hours spent studying (X) Hours spent sleeping (Y)

10 8 12 7 14 6 16 5 18 4

20 7 22 6 24 5 26 4 28 3

30 6 32 5 34 4 36 3 38 2

40 5 42 4 44 3 46 2 48 1

50 4 52 3 54 2 56 1 58 0

Suppose that the following data were obtained from a study of the relationship between the number of hours spent studying and the number of hours spent sleeping.

Hours spent studying (X) Hours spent sleeping (Y)

10 8 12 7 14 6 16 5 18 4

20 7 22 6 24 5 26 4 28 3

30 6 32 5 34 4 36 3 38 2

40 5 42 4 44 3 46 2 48 1

50 4 52 3 54 2 56 1 58 0

Suppose that the following data were obtained from a study of the relationship between the number of hours spent studying and the number of hours spent sleeping.

Hours spent studying (X) Hours spent sleeping (Y)

10 8 12 7 14 6 16 5 18 4

20 7 22 6 24 5 26 4 28 3

30 6 32 5 34 4 36 3 38 2

40 5 42 4 44 3 46 2 48 1

50 4 52 3 54 2 56 1 58 0

Suppose that the following data were obtained from a study of the relationship between the number of hours spent studying and the number of hours spent sleeping.

Hours spent studying (X) Hours spent sleeping (Y)

10 8 12 7 14 6 16 5 18 4

20 7 22 6 24 5 26 4 28 3

30 6 32 5 34 4 36 3 38 2

40 5 42 4 44 3 46 2 48 1

50 4 52 3 54 2 56 1 58 0

from the solution to (1).

Therefore, the solution to (1) is

$$y =$$

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$$y = \frac{1}{2} \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} \right)$$

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$$y = \frac{1}{2} \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} \right)$$

$$y = \frac{1}{2} \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} \right)$$

$$y = \frac{1}{2} \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} \right)$$

and the solution to (1) is

Therefore, the solution to (1) is

$$y =$$

Therefore, the solution to (1) is

$$y = \frac{1}{2} \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} \right)$$

$$y =$$

Therefore, the solution to (1) is

$$y = \frac{1}{2} \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} \right)$$

$$y = \frac{1}{2} \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} \right)$$

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The Linear Form of First Differences

Using first

Between y_t and y_{t-1} we have the first difference $y_t - y_{t-1}$ and

$$y_t - y_{t-1} = \Delta y_t = y_t - y_{t-1}$$

$$y_t = y_{t-1} + \Delta y_t$$

As the value of y_{t-1} is known from the previous period, we can write the equation $y_t = y_{t-1} + \Delta y_t$ as

Using first differences

Let $y_t = y_{t-1} + \Delta y_t$ and for period t we have

$$y_t = y_{t-1} + \Delta y_t \quad \text{we take the first differences then we get}$$

$$y_t - y_{t-1} = \Delta y_t \quad \text{or} \quad \Delta y_t = y_t - y_{t-1}$$

$$y_t = y_{t-1} + \Delta y_t \quad \text{or} \quad \Delta y_t = y_t - y_{t-1}$$

As we see $\Delta y_t = y_t - y_{t-1}$ it may be that the degree of correlationbetween y_t and y_{t-1} may be lower than the degree of correlation between y_t and y_{t-2}

The CLRM properties are

$$E(u_t) = 0, E(u_t^2) = \sigma_u^2, E(u_t u_{t-1}) = 0$$

$$E(\Delta y_t^2) = E(u_t^2)$$

$$= E(u_t^2) = \sigma_u^2$$

$$E(u_t) = E(u_{t-1}) = 0$$

$$\sigma_u^2 = \sigma_{\Delta y_t}^2$$

$$E(u_t) = 0, E(u_t^2) = \sigma_u^2$$

$$E(u_t) = 0$$

$$E(u_t^2) = E(u_{t-1}^2) = \sigma_u^2$$

the first difference of the dependent variable properties of CLRM are preserved because the disturbance term is not sum up, the are not independent of each other. This is called the problem of

Using Principal Components

A principal component regression is the principal component regression. The first principal component is the first principal component. The first principal component is the first principal component.

$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1t} + \beta_2 x_{2t} + \dots + \beta_k x_{kt} + u_t$$

$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1t} + \beta_2 x_{2t} + \dots + \beta_k x_{kt} + u_t$$

we can see that the first principal component is the first principal component.

$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1t} + \beta_2 x_{2t} + \dots + \beta_k x_{kt} + u_t$$

when the principal component regression is used, the first principal component is the first principal component. The first principal component is the first principal component.

when the principal component regression is used, the first principal component is the first principal component. The first principal component is the first principal component.

$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1t} + \beta_2 x_{2t} + \dots + \beta_k x_{kt} + u_t$$

when the principal component regression is used, the first principal component is the first principal component. The first principal component is the first principal component.

$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1t} + \beta_2 x_{2t} + \dots + \beta_k x_{kt} + u_t$$

when the principal component regression is used, the first principal component is the first principal component. The first principal component is the first principal component.

when the principal component regression is used, the first principal component is the first principal component. The first principal component is the first principal component.

Specification Analysis

1 Introduction

1.1 Diagnostic Tests Based on Least Squares Residuals

Regression tests are tests that are based on the least squares method. They are used to test the null hypothesis that the regression coefficients are equal to zero. The tests are based on the residuals of the regression model. The tests are used to detect specification errors, such as omitted variables, incorrect functional form, and heteroscedasticity.

We are now going to discuss the tests based on least squares residuals.

One of the assumptions of the least squares method is that the error term is normally distributed. If this assumption is violated, the least squares estimates will be biased and inefficient. There are several tests that can be used to check for normality of the error term. The most common test is the Shapiro-Wilk test. Other tests include the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and the Anderson-Darling test.

Model Selection Criteria

One of the main goals of model selection is to find the model that best fits the data. There are several criteria that can be used to evaluate the quality of a model. The most common criteria are the adjusted R-squared, the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC), and the Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC).

The adjusted R-squared is a measure of the goodness of fit of a model. It is calculated by dividing the R-squared by the number of predictors in the model. The adjusted R-squared is used to compare models with different numbers of predictors.

1.4 Types of Specification Errors

There are several types of specification errors that can occur in a regression model. The most common types are omitted variables, incorrect functional form, and heteroscedasticity.

Omitted variables are variables that are not included in the model but that affect the dependent variable. If an important variable is omitted, the estimates of the coefficients of the included variables will be biased.

Incorrect functional form occurs when the relationship between the independent and dependent variables is not linear. If the relationship is non-linear, the linear model will not fit the data well.

Heteroscedasticity occurs when the variance of the error term is not constant. If the variance is not constant, the standard errors of the coefficients will be biased, and the tests of the coefficients will be invalid.

There are several tests that can be used to detect specification errors. The most common tests are the Ramsey RESET test, the Breusch-Pagan test, and the White test.

The Ramsey RESET test is a test for omitted variables. It is based on the residuals of the regression model. The test is used to detect non-linearity in the relationship between the independent and dependent variables.

The Breusch-Pagan test is a test for heteroscedasticity. It is based on the residuals of the regression model. The test is used to detect non-constant variance of the error term.

The White test is a test for both omitted variables and heteroscedasticity. It is based on the residuals of the regression model. The test is used to detect both non-linearity and non-constant variance of the error term.

It is important to note that these tests are only diagnostic tools. They do not provide a definitive answer as to whether a specification error is present. If a test indicates a specification error, it is important to investigate the cause of the error and to re-specify the model accordingly.

the model is misspecified, the OLS estimator is biased and inconsistent.

$$E(\hat{\beta}) \neq \beta \quad \text{and} \quad \text{plim } \hat{\beta} \neq \beta$$

Therefore, OLS is biased and inconsistent in the presence of model misspecification.

But, the OLS estimator is still unbiased and consistent if the model is correctly specified.

Proof of unbiasedness:

Assume the model is correctly specified, i.e., the true model is $y = X\beta + u$, where u is the error term. Then, the OLS estimator is unbiased, i.e., $E(\hat{\beta}) = \beta$. This is because the error term is uncorrelated with the regressors, i.e., $E(u) = 0$ and $E(X'u) = 0$.

Similarly, the OLS estimator is consistent, i.e., $\text{plim } \hat{\beta} = \beta$. This is because the error term is uncorrelated with the regressors, i.e., $E(u) = 0$ and $E(X'u) = 0$. Therefore, the OLS estimator is unbiased and consistent if the model is correctly specified.

However, if the model is misspecified, the OLS estimator is biased and inconsistent.

Therefore, the OLS estimator is unbiased and consistent if the model is correctly specified, but it is biased and inconsistent if the model is misspecified.

Thus, the OLS estimator is unbiased and consistent if the model is correctly specified, but it is biased and inconsistent if the model is misspecified.

Therefore, the OLS estimator is unbiased and consistent if the model is correctly specified, but it is biased and inconsistent if the model is misspecified.

Thus, the OLS estimator is unbiased and consistent if the model is correctly specified, but it is biased and inconsistent if the model is misspecified.

Now, we will discuss the consequences of model misspecification on the OLS estimator.

Effect of misspecification on the OLS estimator: The OLS estimator is biased and inconsistent if the model is misspecified.

To see this, consider the following example. Suppose the true model is $y = X\beta + u$, where u is the error term. Then, the OLS estimator is unbiased and consistent if the model is correctly specified, but it is biased and inconsistent if the model is misspecified.

Consider the following example:

1. The true model is $y = X\beta + u$, where u is the error term.

2. The OLS estimator is unbiased and consistent if the model is correctly specified, but it is biased and inconsistent if the model is misspecified.

3. Therefore, the OLS estimator is unbiased and consistent if the model is correctly specified, but it is biased and inconsistent if the model is misspecified.

4. Similarly, the OLS estimator is unbiased and consistent if the model is correctly specified, but it is biased and inconsistent if the model is misspecified.

5. Therefore, the OLS estimator is unbiased and consistent if the model is correctly specified, but it is biased and inconsistent if the model is misspecified.

Thus, the OLS estimator is unbiased and consistent if the model is correctly specified, but it is biased and inconsistent if the model is misspecified.

Therefore, the OLS estimator is unbiased and consistent if the model is correctly specified, but it is biased and inconsistent if the model is misspecified.

In the presence of model misspecification, the OLS estimator is biased and inconsistent.

Consequences of Model Specification Errors

For the

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This feature of building models is called the *bottom-up approach*. It is a smaller model than the one we are trying to use as a model of the data-generating process, or *regression fitting*, *data grubbing*, *data snooping* or, somewhat more properly, *data fishing*. It is the case that the modeler has to be very careful not to make small changes to the model and then to all the estimates with him and to find out the implications of the changes. The modeler has to test the fit of the model and to see if the model has acceptable values of the various statistics.

5.5.2 Tests for Omitted Variables and Incorrect Functional Form

In practice we are never sure of the model adopted. Suppose that we have a linear model with k independent variables. In the $k+1$ st step we add a new variable to the model and find out if it is significant. If it is, we add it to the model and find out if it is significant. We continue this process until we find a model which is not significant. In other words, we find the model which is not significant.

However, if the data are noisy, such as the case of the regression model, the modeler has to be careful not to add too many variables. If we add too many variables, the model will be overfitted. The modeler has to find a balance between the number of variables and the quality of the fit. The modeler has to find a balance between the number of variables and the quality of the fit.

One way of checking if the model is overfitted is to look at the residuals. If the residuals are small, the model is a good fit. If the residuals are large, the model is a poor fit. The modeler has to look at the residuals and see if they are small. If they are small, the model is a good fit. If they are large, the model is a poor fit. The modeler has to look at the residuals and see if they are small. If they are small, the model is a good fit. If they are large, the model is a poor fit.

(a) Regression Analysis of Residuals

One way of checking if the model is overfitted is to look at the residuals. If the residuals are small, the model is a good fit. If the residuals are large, the model is a poor fit. The modeler has to look at the residuals and see if they are small. If they are small, the model is a good fit. If they are large, the model is a poor fit. The modeler has to look at the residuals and see if they are small. If they are small, the model is a good fit. If they are large, the model is a poor fit.

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + \dots + \beta_k X_{ki} + \epsilon_i$$

but researchers find the following quadratic fit function

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + \beta_3 X_{3i} + \epsilon_i$$

and another researcher fits the following linear fit function

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \epsilon_i$$

where ϵ_i is the error term. If the model is a good fit, the residuals are small. If the model is a poor fit, the residuals are large.

If the true model function then the researchers fit the model function. If the model is a good fit, the residuals are small. If the model is a poor fit, the residuals are large.

Let us consider an example.

Example 5.2. We have the following set of data on output Y and input X .
 Input X : 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10
 Output Y : 1.5, 1.75, 2.0, 2.25, 2.5, 2.75, 3.0, 3.25, 3.5, 3.75

The data are as follows:

| Input X | Output Y |
|-----------|------------|
| 1 | 1.5 |
| 2 | 1.75 |
| 3 | 2.0 |
| 4 | 2.25 |
| 5 | 2.5 |
| 6 | 2.75 |
| 7 | 3.0 |
| 8 | 3.25 |
| 9 | 3.5 |
| 10 | 3.75 |

The data are as follows:

| Input X | Output Y |
|-----------|------------|
| 1 | 1.5 |
| 2 | 1.75 |
| 3 | 2.0 |
| 4 | 2.25 |
| 5 | 2.5 |
| 6 | 2.75 |
| 7 | 3.0 |
| 8 | 3.25 |
| 9 | 3.5 |
| 10 | 3.75 |

The data are as follows:

| Input X | Output Y |
|-----------|------------|
| 1 | 1.5 |
| 2 | 1.75 |
| 3 | 2.0 |
| 4 | 2.25 |
| 5 | 2.5 |
| 6 | 2.75 |
| 7 | 3.0 |
| 8 | 3.25 |
| 9 | 3.5 |
| 10 | 3.75 |

The data are as follows:

| Input X | Output Y |
|-----------|------------|
| 1 | 1.5 |
| 2 | 1.75 |
| 3 | 2.0 |
| 4 | 2.25 |
| 5 | 2.5 |
| 6 | 2.75 |
| 7 | 3.0 |
| 8 | 3.25 |
| 9 | 3.5 |
| 10 | 3.75 |

Table 5.1
Estimated residuals from the linear, Quadratic and Cubic regression functions

| Input X | Linear | Quadratic | Cubic |
|-----------|--------|-----------|-------|
| 1 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| 2 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| 3 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| 4 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| 5 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| 6 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| 7 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| 8 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| 9 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| 10 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |

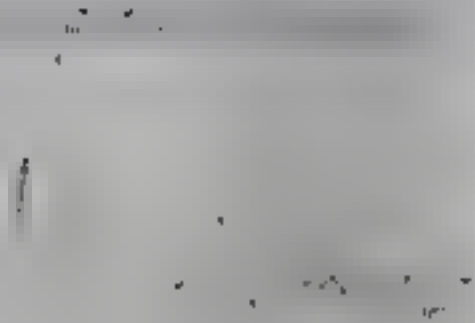


Figure 1: A linear relationship between x and y, where y = x/2.

Fig. 1. The linear relationship between x and y, where y = x/2. The graph shows a straight line passing through the origin (0,0) and having a positive slope. The line is labeled y = x/2.

(ii) The Durbin-Watson statistic

The Durbin-Watson statistic is usually computed by the formula

$$d = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{n-1} (y_t - y_{t-1})^2}{\sum_{t=1}^n y_t^2} \quad \text{where } y_t = \frac{y_t}{\sqrt{\sum_{t=1}^n y_t^2}}$$

where $y_t = \frac{y_t}{\sqrt{\sum_{t=1}^n y_t^2}}$ observed value of y , calculated value of y .

We examine the critical calculated Durbin-Watson statistic. In all cases, the critical value is 1.26. If the calculated value is less than 1.26, we reject the null hypothesis and conclude that there is positive correlation in the data. For example, if the calculated value is 1.0, we reject the null hypothesis. The critical values are $d_L = 1.26$ and $d_U = 1.26$. Similarly, the critical values for the quadratic model function is 0.54, whereas the critical values are 0.54 and 0.54. $d_L = 0.54$ and $d_U = 0.54$ indicating indecisive conclusion.

Figure 2: A non-linear relationship between x and y, where y = x^2/2.

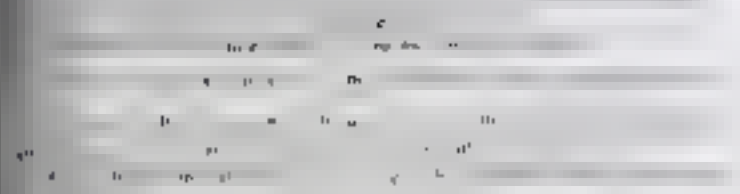


Figure 2: A non-linear relationship between x and y, where y = x^2/2.

The Durbin-Watson statistic is usually computed by the formula

$$d = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{n-1} (y_t - y_{t-1})^2}{\sum_{t=1}^n y_t^2} \quad \text{where } y_t = \frac{y_t}{\sqrt{\sum_{t=1}^n y_t^2}}$$

We can also use the Durbin-Watson statistic to test for positive correlation in the data. If the calculated value is less than 1.26, we reject the null hypothesis and conclude that there is positive correlation in the data. For example, if the calculated value is 1.0, we reject the null hypothesis. The critical values are $d_L = 1.26$ and $d_U = 1.26$. Similarly, the critical values for the quadratic model function is 0.54, whereas the critical values are 0.54 and 0.54. $d_L = 0.54$ and $d_U = 0.54$ indicating indecisive conclusion.

(iii) Ramsey's RESET test

Ramsey has proposed a general test of specification error. The test is based on the following hypothesis: $H_0: \text{The model is correctly specified. } H_1: \text{The model is misspecified.}$ The test statistic is calculated as follows: $R^2 = \frac{\text{Explained variation}}{\text{Total variation}}$. The critical values are $d_L = 1.26$ and $d_U = 1.26$. Similarly, the critical values for the quadratic model function is 0.54, whereas the critical values are 0.54 and 0.54. $d_L = 0.54$ and $d_U = 0.54$ indicating indecisive conclusion.

$$R^2 = \frac{\text{Explained variation}}{\text{Total variation}}$$

The critical values are $d_L = 1.26$ and $d_U = 1.26$.



Fig. 2.2. Schematic of the structure of the system and the state $[x, y, z, \theta, \phi, \psi, \gamma, \delta, \epsilon, \zeta, \eta, \xi, \theta, \phi, \psi, \gamma, \delta, \epsilon, \zeta, \eta, \xi]$ where $\theta, \phi, \psi, \gamma, \delta, \epsilon, \zeta, \eta, \xi$ are the angles of the system.

In Figure 2, the figure illustrates a schematic diagram of the system and the state $[x, y, z, \theta, \phi, \psi, \gamma, \delta, \epsilon, \zeta, \eta, \xi]$ where $\theta, \phi, \psi, \gamma, \delta, \epsilon, \zeta, \eta, \xi$ are the angles of the system.

Figure 2 is a schematic diagram of the system and the state $[x, y, z, \theta, \phi, \psi, \gamma, \delta, \epsilon, \zeta, \eta, \xi]$ where $\theta, \phi, \psi, \gamma, \delta, \epsilon, \zeta, \eta, \xi$ are the angles of the system.

Figure 2 is a schematic diagram of the system and the state $[x, y, z, \theta, \phi, \psi, \gamma, \delta, \epsilon, \zeta, \eta, \xi]$ where $\theta, \phi, \psi, \gamma, \delta, \epsilon, \zeta, \eta, \xi$ are the angles of the system.

Figure 2 is a schematic diagram of the system and the state $[x, y, z, \theta, \phi, \psi, \gamma, \delta, \epsilon, \zeta, \eta, \xi]$ where $\theta, \phi, \psi, \gamma, \delta, \epsilon, \zeta, \eta, \xi$ are the angles of the system.

Figure 2 is a schematic diagram of the system and the state $[x, y, z, \theta, \phi, \psi, \gamma, \delta, \epsilon, \zeta, \eta, \xi]$ where $\theta, \phi, \psi, \gamma, \delta, \epsilon, \zeta, \eta, \xi$ are the angles of the system.

where $R^2_{\text{new}} = 0.451$, $R^2_{\text{old}} = 0.349$

n = number of observations = 100, k = number of variables = 3

the new model = 8

we use the F -statistic value as follows: $F = \frac{R^2_{\text{new}} - R^2_{\text{old}}}{k - k_{\text{old}}} \times \frac{n - k - 1}{R^2_{\text{old}}}$

indicating that the model

is better

$$F = \frac{(0.451 - 0.349)}{(3 - 2)} \times \frac{100 - 3 - 1}{0.349} = 29.4$$

is not significant

Therefore we fail to reject H_0 . The conclusion is that we do not have sufficient evidence to conclude that the new model is better than the old model.

However, the odds are against H_0 if F is high. It does not mean that we

reject H_0 or specify what the F -test is. The F -test is also its limit. It is because knowing the F -test does not mean we necessarily know the

a better alternative

(iv) Lagrange Multiplier (LM) Test for Adding Variables

This test is an alternative to the F -test. The F -test for detecting specification errors in a model.

In order to explain this test procedure, here also we are using the examples of cost functions. Let $Y = C$ and $X = Q$ to be a linear cost function and

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 X^2 + \beta_3 X^3 \quad \text{to be a cubic cost function where}$$

Y = Total cost and X = output

If we start with the linear cost function with the right cost function, then the linear cost function will be a restricted version of cubic cost function. The restricted regression $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 X^2 + \beta_3 X^3$ is subject to the constraints in the squared and cubed output terms, i.e., $\beta_2 = 0$ and $\beta_3 = 0$.

To test that the add test, we follow

(i) We estimate the restricted regression $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 X^2 + \beta_3 X^3$ by OLS method and obtain the residuals e_i .

(ii) In fact, the unrestricted regression $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 X^2 + \beta_3 X^3 + u_i$ is the true regression. The e_i obtained from restricted regression on $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 X^2 + \beta_3 X^3$ should be added to the squared and cubed output terms, i.e., X_i^2 and X_i^3 .

(iii) This suggests that we regress the e_i obtained in step (i) on all the regressors including those in the restricted regression which, in the present case means

$$e_i = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 X_i + \alpha_2 X_i^2 + \alpha_3 X_i^3 + v_i$$

where v_i is an error term with usual properties

(iv) In large sample size, $\frac{e_i^2}{\sigma^2}$ follows that n (the sample size) times R^2 estimated from the regression equation (i) follows a chi-square distribution with degrees of freedom equal to the number of restrictions imposed by the restricted regression. In the present example since the terms X^2 and X^3 are dropped from the model.

Symbolically we write $nR^2 \sim \chi^2_k$ (4) (no. of restrictions = 2)

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where $\hat{\beta}$ is least squares estimate of β .
It is well known that the least squares estimator of β is unbiased and efficient in the class of linear unbiased estimators. The variance-covariance matrix of $\hat{\beta}$ is given by $\sigma^2 (X'X)^{-1}$, where σ^2 is the variance of the error term ϵ . The least squares estimator of σ^2 is given by $s^2 = \frac{1}{n-k} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{\epsilon}_i^2$, where $\hat{\epsilon}_i = y_i - \hat{y}_i$ is the residual for the i th observation. The least squares estimator of β is unbiased and efficient in the class of linear unbiased estimators. The variance-covariance matrix of $\hat{\beta}$ is given by $\sigma^2 (X'X)^{-1}$, where σ^2 is the variance of the error term ϵ . The least squares estimator of σ^2 is given by $s^2 = \frac{1}{n-k} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{\epsilon}_i^2$, where $\hat{\epsilon}_i = y_i - \hat{y}_i$ is the residual for the i th observation.

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EXERCISE

1. What is the least squares estimator of β ? What is the variance-covariance matrix of $\hat{\beta}$? What is the least squares estimator of σ^2 ?
2. What is the least squares estimator of β ? What is the variance-covariance matrix of $\hat{\beta}$? What is the least squares estimator of σ^2 ?
3. What is the least squares estimator of β ? What is the variance-covariance matrix of $\hat{\beta}$? What is the least squares estimator of σ^2 ?
4. What is the least squares estimator of β ? What is the variance-covariance matrix of $\hat{\beta}$? What is the least squares estimator of σ^2 ?
5. What is the least squares estimator of β ? What is the variance-covariance matrix of $\hat{\beta}$? What is the least squares estimator of σ^2 ?
6. What is the least squares estimator of β ? What is the variance-covariance matrix of $\hat{\beta}$? What is the least squares estimator of σ^2 ?
7. What is the least squares estimator of β ? What is the variance-covariance matrix of $\hat{\beta}$? What is the least squares estimator of σ^2 ?
8. What is the least squares estimator of β ? What is the variance-covariance matrix of $\hat{\beta}$? What is the least squares estimator of σ^2 ?

21. The following table shows the values of expenditure on clothing (Y), via expenditure (X_1) and the price of clothing (X_2)

| | 1960 | 1961 | 1962 | 1963 | 1964 | 1965 | 1966 | 1967 | 1968 | 1969 |
|-------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| X_2 | 16 | 13 | 10 | 7 | 7 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 3.5 | 3 |
| X_1 | 15 | 20 | 30 | 42 | 50 | 54 | 69 | 72 | 85 | 96 |
| Y | 34 | 43 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 9 | 11 | 10 | 12 | 4 |

- Estimate the model: $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + u_i$
 - Estimate the model: $Y_i = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 X_{1i} + v_i$
 - If $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + u_i$ is the true model, then examine the consequences in the regression parameters when X_2 is omitted from the model.
22. The following results were obtained from a sample of size 12
- $\Sigma Y_i = 753, \Sigma Y_i^2 = 48,139, \Sigma X_{1i} Y_i = 40830$
- $\Sigma X_{1i} = 643, \Sigma X_{1i}^2 = 34843, \Sigma X_{2i} Y_i = 6,796$
- $\Sigma X_{2i} = 106, \Sigma X_{2i}^2 = 976, \Sigma X_{1i} X_{2i} = 4,779$
- Estimate the model: $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + u_i$
 - Estimate the model: $Y_i = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 X_{1i} + v_i$
 - Examine the impact on the regression parameters when X_2 is omitted from the true model $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + u_i$

APPENDIX

STATISTICAL TABLES

TABLE I

ORDINATES AND AREAS OF THE DISTRIBUTION OF
STANDARD NORMAL VARIABLE*

| z | | z | | z | | z | |
|-----|--------|-----|--------|-----|--------|-----|--------|
| z | Area | z | Area | z | Area | z | Area |
| 0.0 | 0.5000 | 0.1 | 0.5398 | 0.2 | 0.5793 | 0.3 | 0.6179 |
| 0.1 | 0.5398 | 0.2 | 0.5793 | 0.3 | 0.6179 | 0.4 | 0.6554 |
| 0.2 | 0.5793 | 0.3 | 0.6179 | 0.4 | 0.6554 | 0.5 | 0.6915 |
| 0.3 | 0.6179 | 0.4 | 0.6554 | 0.5 | 0.6915 | 0.6 | 0.7278 |
| 0.4 | 0.6554 | 0.5 | 0.6915 | 0.6 | 0.7278 | 0.7 | 0.7643 |
| 0.5 | 0.6915 | 0.6 | 0.7278 | 0.7 | 0.7643 | 0.8 | 0.7995 |
| 0.6 | 0.7278 | 0.7 | 0.7643 | 0.8 | 0.7995 | 0.9 | 0.8340 |
| 0.7 | 0.7643 | 0.8 | 0.7995 | 0.9 | 0.8340 | 1.0 | 0.8584 |
| 0.8 | 0.7995 | 0.9 | 0.8340 | 1.0 | 0.8584 | 1.1 | 0.8820 |
| 0.9 | 0.8340 | 1.0 | 0.8584 | 1.1 | 0.8820 | 1.2 | 0.9049 |
| 1.0 | 0.8584 | 1.1 | 0.8820 | 1.2 | 0.9049 | 1.3 | 0.9255 |
| 1.1 | 0.8820 | 1.2 | 0.9049 | 1.3 | 0.9255 | 1.4 | 0.9443 |
| 1.2 | 0.9049 | 1.3 | 0.9255 | 1.4 | 0.9443 | 1.5 | 0.9608 |
| 1.3 | 0.9255 | 1.4 | 0.9443 | 1.5 | 0.9608 | 1.6 | 0.9750 |
| 1.4 | 0.9443 | 1.5 | 0.9608 | 1.6 | 0.9750 | 1.7 | 0.9878 |
| 1.5 | 0.9608 | 1.6 | 0.9750 | 1.7 | 0.9878 | 1.8 | 0.9944 |
| 1.6 | 0.9750 | 1.7 | 0.9878 | 1.8 | 0.9944 | 1.9 | 0.9970 |
| 1.7 | 0.9878 | 1.8 | 0.9944 | 1.9 | 0.9970 | 2.0 | 0.9985 |
| 1.8 | 0.9944 | 1.9 | 0.9970 | 2.0 | 0.9985 | 2.1 | 0.9990 |
| 1.9 | 0.9970 | 2.0 | 0.9985 | 2.1 | 0.9990 | 2.2 | 0.9993 |
| 2.0 | 0.9985 | 2.1 | 0.9990 | 2.2 | 0.9993 | 2.3 | 0.9995 |
| 2.1 | 0.9990 | 2.2 | 0.9993 | 2.3 | 0.9995 | 2.4 | 0.9996 |
| 2.2 | 0.9993 | 2.3 | 0.9995 | 2.4 | 0.9996 | 2.5 | 0.9997 |
| 2.3 | 0.9995 | 2.4 | 0.9996 | 2.5 | 0.9997 | 2.6 | 0.9998 |
| 2.4 | 0.9996 | 2.5 | 0.9997 | 2.6 | 0.9998 | 2.7 | 0.9999 |
| 2.5 | 0.9997 | 2.6 | 0.9998 | 2.7 | 0.9999 | 2.8 | 0.9999 |
| 2.6 | 0.9998 | 2.7 | 0.9999 | 2.8 | 0.9999 | 2.9 | 0.9999 |
| 2.7 | 0.9999 | 2.8 | 0.9999 | 2.9 | 0.9999 | 3.0 | 0.9999 |
| 2.8 | 0.9999 | 2.9 | 0.9999 | 3.0 | 0.9999 | 3.1 | 0.9999 |
| 2.9 | 0.9999 | 3.0 | 0.9999 | 3.1 | 0.9999 | 3.2 | 0.9999 |
| 3.0 | 0.9999 | 3.1 | 0.9999 | 3.2 | 0.9999 | 3.3 | 0.9999 |
| 3.1 | 0.9999 | 3.2 | 0.9999 | 3.3 | 0.9999 | 3.4 | 0.9999 |
| 3.2 | 0.9999 | 3.3 | 0.9999 | 3.4 | 0.9999 | 3.5 | 0.9999 |
| 3.3 | 0.9999 | 3.4 | 0.9999 | 3.5 | 0.9999 | 3.6 | 0.9999 |
| 3.4 | 0.9999 | 3.5 | 0.9999 | 3.6 | 0.9999 | 3.7 | 0.9999 |
| 3.5 | 0.9999 | 3.6 | 0.9999 | 3.7 | 0.9999 | 3.8 | 0.9999 |
| 3.6 | 0.9999 | 3.7 | 0.9999 | 3.8 | 0.9999 | 3.9 | 0.9999 |
| 3.7 | 0.9999 | 3.8 | 0.9999 | 3.9 | 0.9999 | 4.0 | 0.9999 |
| 3.8 | 0.9999 | 3.9 | 0.9999 | 4.0 | 0.9999 | 4.1 | 0.9999 |
| 3.9 | 0.9999 | 4.0 | 0.9999 | 4.1 | 0.9999 | 4.2 | 0.9999 |
| 4.0 | 0.9999 | 4.1 | 0.9999 | 4.2 | 0.9999 | 4.3 | 0.9999 |
| 4.1 | 0.9999 | 4.2 | 0.9999 | 4.3 | 0.9999 | 4.4 | 0.9999 |
| 4.2 | 0.9999 | 4.3 | 0.9999 | 4.4 | 0.9999 | 4.5 | 0.9999 |
| 4.3 | 0.9999 | 4.4 | 0.9999 | 4.5 | 0.9999 | 4.6 | 0.9999 |
| 4.4 | 0.9999 | 4.5 | 0.9999 | 4.6 | 0.9999 | 4.7 | 0.9999 |
| 4.5 | 0.9999 | 4.6 | 0.9999 | 4.7 | 0.9999 | 4.8 | 0.9999 |
| 4.6 | 0.9999 | 4.7 | 0.9999 | 4.8 | 0.9999 | 4.9 | 0.9999 |
| 4.7 | 0.9999 | 4.8 | 0.9999 | 4.9 | 0.9999 | 5.0 | 0.9999 |

TABLE 1 (Contd.)

| α | $\Phi(\alpha)$ | $\Phi(\alpha)$ | α | $\Phi(\alpha)$ | $\Phi(\alpha)$ | α | $\Phi(\alpha)$ | $\Phi(\alpha)$ |
|----------|----------------|----------------|----------|----------------|----------------|----------|----------------|----------------|
| 1.22 | 0.8884307 | 0.8884307 | 1.71 | 0.9545451 | 0.9545451 | 2.20 | 0.9674450 | 0.9674450 |
| 1.23 | 0.8903484 | 0.8903484 | 1.72 | 0.9564628 | 0.9564628 | 2.21 | 0.9694628 | 0.9694628 |
| 1.24 | 0.8922661 | 0.8922661 | 1.73 | 0.9584805 | 0.9584805 | 2.22 | 0.9714805 | 0.9714805 |
| 1.25 | 0.8941838 | 0.8941838 | 1.74 | 0.9604982 | 0.9604982 | 2.23 | 0.9734982 | 0.9734982 |
| 1.26 | 0.8961015 | 0.8961015 | 1.75 | 0.9625159 | 0.9625159 | 2.24 | 0.9755159 | 0.9755159 |
| 1.27 | 0.8980192 | 0.8980192 | 1.76 | 0.9645336 | 0.9645336 | 2.25 | 0.9775336 | 0.9775336 |
| 1.28 | 0.8999369 | 0.8999369 | 1.77 | 0.9665513 | 0.9665513 | 2.26 | 0.9795513 | 0.9795513 |
| 1.29 | 0.9018546 | 0.9018546 | 1.78 | 0.9685690 | 0.9685690 | 2.27 | 0.9815690 | 0.9815690 |
| 1.30 | 0.9037723 | 0.9037723 | 1.79 | 0.9705867 | 0.9705867 | 2.28 | 0.9835867 | 0.9835867 |
| 1.31 | 0.9056900 | 0.9056900 | 1.80 | 0.9726044 | 0.9726044 | 2.29 | 0.9856044 | 0.9856044 |
| 1.32 | 0.9076077 | 0.9076077 | 1.81 | 0.9746221 | 0.9746221 | 2.30 | 0.9876221 | 0.9876221 |
| 1.33 | 0.9095254 | 0.9095254 | 1.82 | 0.9766398 | 0.9766398 | 2.31 | 0.9896398 | 0.9896398 |
| 1.34 | 0.9114431 | 0.9114431 | 1.83 | 0.9786575 | 0.9786575 | 2.32 | 0.9916575 | 0.9916575 |
| 1.35 | 0.9133608 | 0.9133608 | 1.84 | 0.9806752 | 0.9806752 | 2.33 | 0.9936752 | 0.9936752 |
| 1.36 | 0.9152785 | 0.9152785 | 1.85 | 0.9826929 | 0.9826929 | 2.34 | 0.9956929 | 0.9956929 |
| 1.37 | 0.9171962 | 0.9171962 | 1.86 | 0.9847106 | 0.9847106 | 2.35 | 0.9977106 | 0.9977106 |
| 1.38 | 0.9191139 | 0.9191139 | 1.87 | 0.9867283 | 0.9867283 | 2.36 | 0.9997283 | 0.9997283 |
| 1.39 | 0.9210316 | 0.9210316 | 1.88 | 0.9887460 | 0.9887460 | 2.37 | 1.0017460 | 1.0017460 |
| 1.40 | 0.9229493 | 0.9229493 | 1.89 | 0.9907637 | 0.9907637 | 2.38 | 1.0037637 | 1.0037637 |
| 1.41 | 0.9248670 | 0.9248670 | 1.90 | 0.9927814 | 0.9927814 | 2.39 | 1.0057814 | 1.0057814 |
| 1.42 | 0.9267847 | 0.9267847 | 1.91 | 0.9947991 | 0.9947991 | 2.40 | 1.0077991 | 1.0077991 |
| 1.43 | 0.9287024 | 0.9287024 | 1.92 | 0.9968168 | 0.9968168 | 2.41 | 1.0098168 | 1.0098168 |
| 1.44 | 0.9306201 | 0.9306201 | 1.93 | 0.9988345 | 0.9988345 | 2.42 | 1.0118345 | 1.0118345 |
| 1.45 | 0.9325378 | 0.9325378 | 1.94 | 1.0008522 | 1.0008522 | 2.43 | 1.0138522 | 1.0138522 |
| 1.46 | 0.9344555 | 0.9344555 | 1.95 | 1.0028699 | 1.0028699 | 2.44 | 1.0158699 | 1.0158699 |
| 1.47 | 0.9363732 | 0.9363732 | 1.96 | 1.0048876 | 1.0048876 | 2.45 | 1.0178876 | 1.0178876 |
| 1.48 | 0.9382909 | 0.9382909 | 1.97 | 1.0069053 | 1.0069053 | 2.46 | 1.0199053 | 1.0199053 |
| 1.49 | 0.9402086 | 0.9402086 | 1.98 | 1.0089230 | 1.0089230 | 2.47 | 1.0219230 | 1.0219230 |
| 1.50 | 0.9421263 | 0.9421263 | 1.99 | 1.0109407 | 1.0109407 | 2.48 | 1.0239407 | 1.0239407 |
| 1.51 | 0.9440440 | 0.9440440 | 2.00 | 1.0129584 | 1.0129584 | 2.49 | 1.0259584 | 1.0259584 |
| 1.52 | 0.9459617 | 0.9459617 | 2.01 | 1.0149761 | 1.0149761 | 2.50 | 1.0279761 | 1.0279761 |
| 1.53 | 0.9478794 | 0.9478794 | 2.02 | 1.0169938 | 1.0169938 | 2.51 | 1.0299938 | 1.0299938 |
| 1.54 | 0.9497971 | 0.9497971 | 2.03 | 1.0190115 | 1.0190115 | 2.52 | 1.0320115 | 1.0320115 |
| 1.55 | 0.9517148 | 0.9517148 | 2.04 | 1.0210292 | 1.0210292 | 2.53 | 1.0340292 | 1.0340292 |
| 1.56 | 0.9536325 | 0.9536325 | 2.05 | 1.0230469 | 1.0230469 | 2.54 | 1.0360469 | 1.0360469 |
| 1.57 | 0.9555502 | 0.9555502 | 2.06 | 1.0250646 | 1.0250646 | 2.55 | 1.0380646 | 1.0380646 |
| 1.58 | 0.9574679 | 0.9574679 | 2.07 | 1.0270823 | 1.0270823 | 2.56 | 1.0400823 | 1.0400823 |
| 1.59 | 0.9593856 | 0.9593856 | 2.08 | 1.0290999 | 1.0290999 | 2.57 | 1.0420999 | 1.0420999 |
| 1.60 | 0.9613033 | 0.9613033 | 2.09 | 1.0311176 | 1.0311176 | 2.58 | 1.0441176 | 1.0441176 |
| 1.61 | 0.9632210 | 0.9632210 | 2.10 | 1.0331353 | 1.0331353 | 2.59 | 1.0461353 | 1.0461353 |
| 1.62 | 0.9651387 | 0.9651387 | 2.11 | 1.0351530 | 1.0351530 | 2.60 | 1.0481530 | 1.0481530 |
| 1.63 | 0.9670564 | 0.9670564 | 2.12 | 1.0371707 | 1.0371707 | 2.61 | 1.0501707 | 1.0501707 |
| 1.64 | 0.9689741 | 0.9689741 | 2.13 | 1.0391884 | 1.0391884 | 2.62 | 1.0521884 | 1.0521884 |
| 1.65 | 0.9708918 | 0.9708918 | 2.14 | 1.0412061 | 1.0412061 | 2.63 | 1.0542061 | 1.0542061 |
| 1.66 | 0.9728095 | 0.9728095 | 2.15 | 1.0432238 | 1.0432238 | 2.64 | 1.0562238 | 1.0562238 |
| 1.67 | 0.9747272 | 0.9747272 | 2.16 | 1.0452415 | 1.0452415 | 2.65 | 1.0582415 | 1.0582415 |
| 1.68 | 0.9766449 | 0.9766449 | 2.17 | 1.0472592 | 1.0472592 | 2.66 | 1.0602592 | 1.0602592 |
| 1.69 | 0.9785626 | 0.9785626 | 2.18 | 1.0492769 | 1.0492769 | 2.67 | 1.0622769 | 1.0622769 |
| 1.70 | 0.9804803 | 0.9804803 | 2.19 | 1.0512946 | 1.0512946 | 2.68 | 1.0642946 | 1.0642946 |

TABLE 2 (Contd.)

| α | $\Phi(\alpha)$ | α | $\Phi(\alpha)$ | α | $\Phi(\alpha)$ | α | $\Phi(\alpha)$ |
|----------|----------------|-----------|----------------|-----------|----------------|----------|----------------|
| 2.51 | 0.9942396 | 0.9942396 | 3.01 | 0.9999997 | 0.9999997 | 3.50 | 0.9999999 |
| 2.52 | 0.9947573 | 0.9947573 | 3.02 | 0.9999998 | 0.9999998 | 3.51 | 0.9999999 |
| 2.53 | 0.9952750 | 0.9952750 | 3.03 | 0.9999999 | 0.9999999 | 3.52 | 0.9999999 |
| 2.54 | 0.9957927 | 0.9957927 | 3.04 | 1.0000000 | 1.0000000 | 3.53 | 0.9999999 |
| 2.55 | 0.9963104 | 0.9963104 | 3.05 | 1.0000000 | 1.0000000 | 3.54 | 0.9999999 |
| 2.56 | 0.9968281 | 0.9968281 | 3.06 | 1.0000000 | 1.0000000 | 3.55 | 0.9999999 |
| 2.57 | 0.9973458 | 0.9973458 | 3.07 | 1.0000000 | 1.0000000 | 3.56 | 0.9999999 |
| 2.58 | 0.9978635 | 0.9978635 | 3.08 | 1.0000000 | 1.0000000 | 3.57 | 0.9999999 |
| 2.59 | 0.9983812 | 0.9983812 | 3.09 | 1.0000000 | 1.0000000 | 3.58 | 0.9999999 |
| 2.60 | 0.9988989 | 0.9988989 | 3.10 | 1.0000000 | 1.0000000 | 3.59 | 0.9999999 |
| 2.61 | 0.9994166 | 0.9994166 | 3.11 | 1.0000000 | 1.0000000 | 3.60 | 0.9999999 |
| 2.62 | 0.9999343 | 0.9999343 | 3.12 | 1.0000000 | 1.0000000 | 3.61 | 0.9999999 |
| 2.63 | 1.0004520 | 1.0004520 | 3.13 | 1.0000000 | 1.0000000 | 3.62 | 0.9999999 |
| 2.64 | 1.0009697 | 1.0009697 | 3.14 | 1.0000000 | 1.0000000 | 3.63 | 0.9999999 |
| 2.65 | 1.0014874 | 1.0014874 | 3.15 | 1.0000000 | 1.0000000 | 3.64 | 0.9999999 |
| 2.66 | 1.0020051 | 1.0020051 | 3.16 | 1.0000000 | 1.0000000 | 3.65 | 0.9999999 |
| 2.67 | 1.0025228 | 1.0025228 | 3.17 | 1.0000000 | 1.0000000 | 3.66 | 0.9999999 |
| 2.68 | 1.0030405 | 1.0030405 | 3.18 | 1.0000000 | 1.0000000 | 3.67 | 0.9999999 |
| 2.69 | 1.0035582 | 1.0035582 | 3.19 | 1.0000000 | 1.0000000 | 3.68 | 0.9999999 |
| 2.70 | 1.0040759 | 1.0040759 | 3.20 | 1.0000000 | 1.0000000 | 3.69 | 0.9999999 |
| 2.71 | 1.0045936 | 1.0045936 | 3.21 | 1.0000000 | 1.0000000 | 3.70 | 0.9999999 |
| 2.72 | 1.0051113 | 1.0051113 | 3.22 | 1.0000000 | 1.0000000 | 3.71 | 0.9999999 |
| 2.73 | 1.0056290 | 1.0056290 | 3.23 | 1.0000000 | 1.0000000 | 3.72 | 0.9999999 |
| 2.74 | 1.0061467 | 1.0061467 | 3.24 | 1.0000000 | 1.0000000 | 3.73 | 0.9999999 |
| 2.75 | 1.0066644 | 1.0066644 | 3.25 | 1.0000000 | 1.0000000 | 3.74 | 0.9999999 |
| 2.76 | 1.0071821 | 1.0071821 | 3.26 | 1.0000000 | 1.0000000 | 3.75 | 0.9999999 |
| 2.77 | 1.0076998 | 1.0076998 | 3.27 | 1.0000000 | 1.0000000 | 3.76 | 0.9999999 |
| 2.78 | 1.0082175 | 1.0082175 | 3.28 | 1.0000000 | 1.0000000 | 3.77 | 0.9999999 |
| 2.79 | 1.0087352 | 1.0087352 | 3.29 | 1.0000000 | 1.0000000 | 3.78 | 0.9999999 |
| 2.80 | 1.0092529 | 1.0092529 | 3.30 | 1.0000000 | 1.0000000 | 3.79 | 0.9999999 |

* Adapted from Table 1 of *Biometrika Tables for Statisticians*, vol. 1, with the kind permission of the Biometrika Trustees.

TABLE II
DISTRIBUTION OF STANDARD NORMAL VARIABLE
Values of τ_p

| α | 0.05 | 0.025 | 0.01 | 0.005 |
|----------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| τ_p | 1.645 | 1.960 | 2.326 | 2.576 |

TABLE III
T-DISTRIBUTION*
VALUES OF $t_{\alpha, n}$

| $\alpha \backslash n$ | 0.995 | 0.990 | 0.975 | 0.950 | 0.900 | 0.850 | 0.800 | 0.750 |
|-----------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| 1 | 6.3138 | 6.9648 | 8.0085 | 9.9248 | 12.9403 | 15.9925 | 19.0000 | 22.9229 |
| 2 | 2.9248 | 3.1831 | 3.4648 | 4.3027 | 5.5919 | 6.9648 | 8.1626 | 9.5965 |
| 3 | 1.8946 | 2.0150 | 2.1578 | 2.5762 | 3.1831 | 3.7699 | 4.3529 | 5.0085 |
| 4 | 1.5332 | 1.6013 | 1.6991 | 2.0150 | 2.3534 | 2.7078 | 3.0776 | 3.4503 |
| 5 | 1.4760 | 1.5422 | 1.6291 | 1.9432 | 2.2622 | 2.5918 | 2.9467 | 3.2930 |
| 6 | 1.4398 | 1.5052 | 1.5915 | 1.9010 | 2.2010 | 2.5209 | 2.8745 | 3.2148 |
| 7 | 1.4177 | 1.4828 | 1.5685 | 1.8763 | 2.1768 | 2.4963 | 2.8508 | 3.1831 |
| 8 | 1.4019 | 1.4668 | 1.5521 | 1.8574 | 2.1581 | 2.4778 | 2.8327 | 3.1614 |
| 9 | 1.3893 | 1.4540 | 1.5389 | 1.8426 | 2.1445 | 2.4641 | 2.8190 | 3.1461 |
| 10 | 1.3794 | 1.4438 | 1.5281 | 1.8307 | 2.1330 | 2.4533 | 2.8090 | 3.1370 |
| 11 | 1.3719 | 1.4361 | 1.5202 | 1.8207 | 2.1235 | 2.4444 | 2.8000 | 3.1291 |
| 12 | 1.3659 | 1.4297 | 1.5140 | 1.8119 | 2.1156 | 2.4371 | 2.7927 | 3.1224 |
| 13 | 1.3609 | 1.4244 | 1.5085 | 1.8041 | 2.1087 | 2.4304 | 2.7861 | 3.1166 |
| 14 | 1.3567 | 1.4198 | 1.5038 | 1.7973 | 2.1027 | 2.4244 | 2.7802 | 3.1115 |
| 15 | 1.3532 | 1.4159 | 1.5000 | 1.7914 | 2.0975 | 2.4190 | 2.7750 | 3.1069 |
| 16 | 1.3503 | 1.4126 | 1.4968 | 1.7863 | 2.0930 | 2.4143 | 2.7705 | 3.1028 |
| 17 | 1.3479 | 1.4098 | 1.4941 | 1.7819 | 2.0892 | 2.4102 | 2.7667 | 3.0991 |
| 18 | 1.3458 | 1.4074 | 1.4917 | 1.7781 | 2.0860 | 2.4067 | 2.7634 | 3.0958 |
| 19 | 1.3439 | 1.4052 | 1.4895 | 1.7748 | 2.0833 | 2.4038 | 2.7605 | 3.0928 |
| 20 | 1.3423 | 1.4033 | 1.4875 | 1.7719 | 2.0810 | 2.4013 | 2.7579 | 3.0901 |
| 21 | 1.3409 | 1.4016 | 1.4857 | 1.7693 | 2.0790 | 2.3991 | 2.7555 | 3.0876 |
| 22 | 1.3396 | 1.4001 | 1.4841 | 1.7669 | 2.0772 | 2.3971 | 2.7533 | 3.0853 |
| 23 | 1.3384 | 1.3987 | 1.4826 | 1.7647 | 2.0756 | 2.3953 | 2.7513 | 3.0832 |
| 24 | 1.3373 | 1.3975 | 1.4812 | 1.7627 | 2.0741 | 2.3937 | 2.7494 | 3.0813 |
| 25 | 1.3363 | 1.3964 | 1.4800 | 1.7608 | 2.0727 | 2.3922 | 2.7477 | 3.0795 |
| 26 | 1.3354 | 1.3954 | 1.4789 | 1.7590 | 2.0714 | 2.3908 | 2.7461 | 3.0779 |
| 27 | 1.3346 | 1.3945 | 1.4779 | 1.7574 | 2.0702 | 2.3895 | 2.7446 | 3.0764 |
| 28 | 1.3338 | 1.3937 | 1.4770 | 1.7559 | 2.0691 | 2.3883 | 2.7432 | 3.0750 |
| 29 | 1.3331 | 1.3929 | 1.4762 | 1.7545 | 2.0681 | 2.3872 | 2.7419 | 3.0737 |
| 30 | 1.3324 | 1.3922 | 1.4755 | 1.7532 | 2.0672 | 2.3862 | 2.7407 | 3.0725 |
| 40 | 1.3293 | 1.3893 | 1.4726 | 1.7495 | 2.0645 | 2.3837 | 2.7374 | 3.0691 |
| 50 | 1.3270 | 1.3874 | 1.4707 | 1.7467 | 2.0625 | 2.3818 | 2.7350 | 3.0667 |
| 60 | 1.3255 | 1.3861 | 1.4694 | 1.7448 | 2.0611 | 2.3805 | 2.7335 | 3.0653 |
| 70 | 1.3244 | 1.3851 | 1.4684 | 1.7436 | 2.0601 | 2.3796 | 2.7326 | 3.0645 |
| 80 | 1.3235 | 1.3843 | 1.4676 | 1.7427 | 2.0593 | 2.3789 | 2.7319 | 3.0639 |
| 90 | 1.3228 | 1.3837 | 1.4670 | 1.7420 | 2.0587 | 2.3784 | 2.7314 | 3.0634 |
| 100 | 1.3223 | 1.3832 | 1.4665 | 1.7415 | 2.0582 | 2.3780 | 2.7310 | 3.0630 |

For larger values of n , the quantity $\sqrt{n}(\bar{y} - \mu)/s$ may be used as a standard normal variable.

*Adapted from Table 3 of *Biometrika Tables for Statisticians*, vol. 1, with the kind permission of the Biometrika Trustees.

TABLE IV
F-DISTRIBUTION*
VALUES OF F_{α, n_1, n_2}

Example

$$F_{0.05, 1, 10} = 5.024$$

$$F_{0.05, 1, 10} = 5.024 \quad \text{for } df = 10$$

$$F_{0.05, 1, 10} = 5.024$$



| $\alpha \backslash n_1 \backslash n_2$ | 0.01 | 0.05 | 0.10 | 0.25 | 0.50 | 1.00 | 2.00 |
|--|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| 1 | 161.447 | 19.1644 | 15.9993 | 14.6959 | 13.7470 | 13.0822 | 12.5000 |
| 2 | 18.5128 | 5.9990 | 5.0240 | 4.3027 | 3.7699 | 3.3529 | 3.0085 |
| 3 | 9.5894 | 3.4648 | 2.9248 | 2.3534 | 2.0150 | 1.7078 | 1.5000 |
| 4 | 6.5919 | 2.7078 | 2.1578 | 1.6991 | 1.4398 | 1.2010 | 1.0000 |
| 5 | 5.4019 | 2.1768 | 1.6291 | 1.2622 | 1.0150 | 0.8000 | 0.6000 |
| 6 | 4.7590 | 1.8763 | 1.3763 | 1.0150 | 0.7763 | 0.5763 | 0.4000 |
| 7 | 4.3529 | 1.6291 | 1.1291 | 0.8000 | 0.5763 | 0.3763 | 0.2000 |
| 8 | 4.0085 | 1.4398 | 0.9763 | 0.6991 | 0.4763 | 0.2763 | 0.1000 |
| 9 | 3.7699 | 1.2622 | 0.8000 | 0.5763 | 0.3763 | 0.1763 | 0.0500 |
| 10 | 3.5919 | 1.1291 | 0.6991 | 0.4763 | 0.2763 | 0.0763 | 0.0200 |
| 11 | 3.4648 | 1.0150 | 0.5763 | 0.3763 | 0.1763 | 0.0500 | 0.0100 |
| 12 | 3.3529 | 0.9000 | 0.4763 | 0.2763 | 0.1000 | 0.0200 | 0.0050 |
| 13 | 3.2622 | 0.8000 | 0.3763 | 0.1763 | 0.0763 | 0.0100 | 0.0020 |
| 14 | 3.1831 | 0.7078 | 0.2763 | 0.1000 | 0.0500 | 0.0050 | 0.0010 |
| 15 | 3.1166 | 0.6224 | 0.1912 | 0.0763 | 0.0200 | 0.0010 | 0.0005 |
| 16 | 3.0607 | 0.5513 | 0.1513 | 0.0513 | 0.0100 | 0.0005 | 0.0002 |
| 17 | 3.0148 | 0.4900 | 0.1100 | 0.0300 | 0.0050 | 0.0002 | 0.0001 |
| 18 | 2.9765 | 0.4376 | 0.0876 | 0.0200 | 0.0020 | 0.0001 | 0.0000 |
| 19 | 2.9448 | 0.3927 | 0.0727 | 0.0150 | 0.0010 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 |
| 20 | 2.9184 | 0.3542 | 0.0642 | 0.0100 | 0.0005 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 |
| 21 | 2.8961 | 0.3210 | 0.0570 | 0.0070 | 0.0002 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 |
| 22 | 2.8774 | 0.2922 | 0.0512 | 0.0050 | 0.0001 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 |
| 23 | 2.8619 | 0.2678 | 0.0465 | 0.0040 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 |
| 24 | 2.8489 | 0.2469 | 0.0428 | 0.0030 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 |
| 25 | 2.8378 | 0.2288 | 0.0398 | 0.0020 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 |
| 26 | 2.8282 | 0.2131 | 0.0373 | 0.0015 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 |
| 27 | 2.8198 | 0.1994 | 0.0351 | 0.0010 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 |
| 28 | 2.8125 | 0.1874 | 0.0332 | 0.0008 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 |
| 29 | 2.8061 | 0.1769 | 0.0316 | 0.0006 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 |
| 30 | 2.8005 | 0.1677 | 0.0302 | 0.0005 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 |
| 40 | 2.7550 | 0.1250 | 0.0200 | 0.0001 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 |
| 50 | 2.7078 | 0.0900 | 0.0100 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 |
| 60 | 2.6648 | 0.0670 | 0.0050 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 |
| 70 | 2.6261 | 0.0500 | 0.0020 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 |
| 80 | 2.5919 | 0.0370 | 0.0010 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 |
| 90 | 2.5619 | 0.0270 | 0.0005 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 |
| 100 | 2.5361 | 0.0200 | 0.0002 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 |
| ∞ | 2.5000 | 0.0100 | 0.0001 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 |

Note: The smaller probability values at the head of each column in the above table are the larger probabilities in the same column.

Source: Table 3 of *Biometrika Tables for Statisticians*, vol. 1, 3rd ed., 1950, Cambridge University Press, New York, 1950. Reprinted by permission of the trustees and editors of *Biometrika*.

TABLE I
F-DISTRIBUTIONS
Values of F_{α, ν_1, ν_2}

| α | 1 | 5 | 10 | 20 | 30 | 40 | 50 | 60 | 70 | 80 | 90 | 100 |
|----------|-------|-------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| 1 | 161.4 | 108.1 | 83.1 | 65.4 | 55.9 | 48.9 | 43.7 | 39.9 | 37.1 | 35.0 | 33.7 | 32.8 |
| 2 | 19.0 | 12.9 | 10.0 | 8.0 | 6.9 | 6.0 | 5.4 | 4.9 | 4.6 | 4.3 | 4.1 | 4.0 |
| 3 | 10.1 | 6.6 | 5.0 | 4.0 | 3.4 | 3.0 | 2.7 | 2.4 | 2.2 | 2.0 | 1.9 | 1.8 |
| 4 | 7.7 | 5.0 | 3.8 | 3.0 | 2.5 | 2.2 | 1.9 | 1.7 | 1.5 | 1.4 | 1.3 | 1.2 |
| 5 | 6.6 | 4.3 | 3.3 | 2.6 | 2.1 | 1.8 | 1.6 | 1.4 | 1.3 | 1.2 | 1.1 | 1.0 |
| 6 | 5.8 | 3.8 | 2.9 | 2.3 | 1.9 | 1.6 | 1.4 | 1.2 | 1.1 | 1.0 | 0.9 | 0.8 |
| 7 | 5.2 | 3.4 | 2.6 | 2.1 | 1.7 | 1.5 | 1.3 | 1.1 | 1.0 | 0.9 | 0.8 | 0.7 |
| 8 | 4.8 | 3.1 | 2.4 | 1.9 | 1.6 | 1.4 | 1.2 | 1.0 | 0.9 | 0.8 | 0.7 | 0.6 |
| 9 | 4.4 | 2.9 | 2.2 | 1.8 | 1.5 | 1.3 | 1.1 | 0.9 | 0.8 | 0.7 | 0.6 | 0.5 |
| 10 | 4.1 | 2.7 | 2.0 | 1.7 | 1.4 | 1.2 | 1.0 | 0.8 | 0.7 | 0.6 | 0.5 | 0.4 |
| 15 | 3.3 | 2.2 | 1.7 | 1.4 | 1.2 | 1.0 | 0.8 | 0.7 | 0.6 | 0.5 | 0.4 | 0.3 |
| 20 | 2.9 | 1.9 | 1.5 | 1.2 | 1.0 | 0.8 | 0.7 | 0.6 | 0.5 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.2 |
| 25 | 2.6 | 1.7 | 1.4 | 1.1 | 0.9 | 0.7 | 0.6 | 0.5 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.2 |
| 30 | 2.4 | 1.6 | 1.3 | 1.0 | 0.8 | 0.6 | 0.5 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.1 |
| 40 | 2.1 | 1.4 | 1.1 | 0.9 | 0.7 | 0.5 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.1 |
| 50 | 1.9 | 1.3 | 1.0 | 0.8 | 0.6 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 |
| 60 | 1.7 | 1.2 | 0.9 | 0.7 | 0.5 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 |
| 70 | 1.6 | 1.1 | 0.8 | 0.6 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 |
| 80 | 1.5 | 1.0 | 0.7 | 0.5 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 |
| 90 | 1.4 | 0.9 | 0.6 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 |
| 100 | 1.3 | 0.8 | 0.5 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 |

For other values of α , ν_1 and ν_2 , see the two lower subtables, using F_{α, ν_1, ν_2} and F_{α, ν_2, ν_1} in the subtable headings.

TABLE V (continued)
Values of F_{α, ν_1, ν_2}

| α | 1 | 5 | 10 | 20 | 30 | 40 | 50 | 60 | 70 | 80 | 90 | 100 |
|----------|-------|-------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| 1 | 161.4 | 108.1 | 83.1 | 65.4 | 55.9 | 48.9 | 43.7 | 39.9 | 37.1 | 35.0 | 33.7 | 32.8 |
| 2 | 19.0 | 12.9 | 10.0 | 8.0 | 6.9 | 6.0 | 5.4 | 4.9 | 4.6 | 4.3 | 4.1 | 4.0 |
| 3 | 10.1 | 6.6 | 5.0 | 4.0 | 3.4 | 3.0 | 2.7 | 2.4 | 2.2 | 2.0 | 1.9 | 1.8 |
| 4 | 7.7 | 5.0 | 3.8 | 3.0 | 2.5 | 2.2 | 1.9 | 1.7 | 1.5 | 1.4 | 1.3 | 1.2 |
| 5 | 6.6 | 4.3 | 3.3 | 2.6 | 2.1 | 1.8 | 1.6 | 1.4 | 1.3 | 1.2 | 1.1 | 1.0 |
| 6 | 5.8 | 3.8 | 2.9 | 2.3 | 1.9 | 1.6 | 1.4 | 1.2 | 1.1 | 1.0 | 0.9 | 0.8 |
| 7 | 5.2 | 3.4 | 2.6 | 2.1 | 1.7 | 1.5 | 1.3 | 1.1 | 1.0 | 0.9 | 0.8 | 0.7 |
| 8 | 4.8 | 3.1 | 2.4 | 1.9 | 1.6 | 1.4 | 1.2 | 1.0 | 0.9 | 0.8 | 0.7 | 0.6 |
| 9 | 4.4 | 2.9 | 2.2 | 1.8 | 1.5 | 1.3 | 1.1 | 0.9 | 0.8 | 0.7 | 0.6 | 0.5 |
| 10 | 4.1 | 2.7 | 2.0 | 1.7 | 1.4 | 1.2 | 1.0 | 0.8 | 0.7 | 0.6 | 0.5 | 0.4 |
| 15 | 3.3 | 2.2 | 1.7 | 1.4 | 1.2 | 1.0 | 0.8 | 0.7 | 0.6 | 0.5 | 0.4 | 0.3 |
| 20 | 2.9 | 1.9 | 1.5 | 1.2 | 1.0 | 0.8 | 0.7 | 0.6 | 0.5 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.2 |
| 25 | 2.6 | 1.7 | 1.4 | 1.1 | 0.9 | 0.7 | 0.6 | 0.5 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.2 |
| 30 | 2.4 | 1.6 | 1.3 | 1.0 | 0.8 | 0.6 | 0.5 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.1 |
| 40 | 2.1 | 1.4 | 1.1 | 0.9 | 0.7 | 0.5 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.1 |
| 50 | 1.9 | 1.3 | 1.0 | 0.8 | 0.6 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 |
| 60 | 1.7 | 1.2 | 0.9 | 0.7 | 0.5 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 |
| 70 | 1.6 | 1.1 | 0.8 | 0.6 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 |
| 80 | 1.5 | 1.0 | 0.7 | 0.5 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 |
| 90 | 1.4 | 0.9 | 0.6 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 |
| 100 | 1.3 | 0.8 | 0.5 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 |

For other values of α , ν_1 and ν_2 , see the two lower subtables, using F_{α, ν_1, ν_2} and F_{α, ν_2, ν_1} in the subtable headings.

* Obtained from Table III of *Biometrika Tables for Biometrists*, vol. I, with the usual permission of the Biometrika Society.

TABLE VI
THE DURBIN-WATSON d -STATISTIC
SIGNIFICANCE POINTS OF d_L AND d_U : 5%

| n | $k = 1$ | | $k = 2$ | | $k = 3$ | | $k = 4$ | | $k = 5$ | |
|-----|---------|-------|---------|-------|---------|-------|---------|-------|---------|-------|
| | d_L | d_U | d_L | d_U | d_L | d_U | d_L | d_U | d_L | d_U |
| 6 | 0.81 | 1.45 | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| 7 | 0.79 | 1.38 | 0.46 | 1.56 | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| 8 | 0.78 | 1.31 | 0.53 | 1.77 | 0.36 | 2.28 | — | — | — | — |
| 9 | 0.82 | 1.22 | 0.62 | 1.88 | 0.45 | 2.12 | 0.29 | 1.59 | — | — |
| 10 | 0.87 | 1.13 | 0.69 | 1.94 | 0.52 | 2.01 | 0.37 | 1.41 | 0.24 | 2.38 |
| 11 | 0.92 | 1.03 | 0.65 | 1.86 | 0.59 | 1.92 | 0.44 | 1.28 | 0.31 | 2.63 |
| 12 | 0.97 | 1.00 | 0.61 | 1.87 | 0.63 | 1.86 | 0.51 | 1.17 | 0.37 | 2.50 |
| 13 | 1.01 | 1.04 | 0.66 | 1.86 | 0.71 | 1.81 | 0.57 | 1.09 | 0.44 | 2.35 |
| 14 | 1.04 | 1.10 | 0.65 | 1.83 | 0.78 | 1.77 | 0.63 | 1.03 | 0.50 | 2.29 |
| 15 | 1.08 | 1.16 | 0.65 | 1.84 | 0.82 | 1.73 | 0.69 | 1.07 | 0.56 | 2.21 |
| 16 | 1.10 | 1.21 | 0.66 | 1.84 | 0.86 | 1.73 | 0.74 | 1.05 | 0.62 | 2.15 |
| 17 | 1.13 | 1.26 | 1.02 | 1.84 | 0.90 | 1.71 | 0.78 | 1.00 | 0.67 | 2.10 |
| 18 | 1.16 | 1.30 | 1.05 | 1.83 | 0.93 | 1.69 | 0.82 | 1.07 | 0.71 | 2.06 |
| 19 | 1.18 | 1.40 | 1.08 | 1.82 | 0.97 | 1.68 | 0.86 | 1.05 | 0.75 | 2.02 |
| 20 | 1.20 | 1.43 | 1.10 | 1.84 | 1.00 | 1.68 | 0.90 | 1.03 | 0.79 | 1.99 |
| 21 | 1.22 | 1.47 | 1.13 | 1.84 | 1.03 | 1.67 | 0.93 | 1.01 | 0.83 | 1.96 |
| 22 | 1.24 | 1.48 | 1.15 | 1.84 | 1.05 | 1.66 | 0.96 | 1.00 | 0.86 | 1.94 |
| 23 | 1.26 | 1.49 | 1.17 | 1.84 | 1.08 | 1.66 | 0.99 | 1.00 | 0.90 | 1.92 |
| 24 | 1.27 | 1.45 | 1.19 | 1.85 | 1.10 | 1.66 | 1.01 | 1.08 | 0.93 | 1.89 |
| 25 | 1.29 | 1.45 | 1.21 | 1.85 | 1.12 | 1.66 | 1.04 | 1.07 | 0.95 | 1.89 |
| 26 | 1.30 | 1.46 | 1.22 | 1.85 | 1.14 | 1.65 | 1.06 | 1.06 | 0.98 | 1.88 |
| 27 | 1.32 | 1.47 | 1.24 | 1.86 | 1.16 | 1.65 | 1.06 | 1.06 | 1.01 | 1.86 |
| 28 | 1.33 | 1.48 | 1.26 | 1.86 | 1.18 | 1.65 | 1.10 | 1.05 | 1.03 | 1.86 |
| 29 | 1.34 | 1.48 | 1.27 | 1.86 | 1.20 | 1.65 | 1.12 | 1.04 | 1.05 | 1.84 |
| 30 | 1.35 | 1.49 | 1.28 | 1.87 | 1.21 | 1.65 | 1.14 | 1.04 | 1.07 | 1.83 |
| 31 | 1.36 | 1.50 | 1.30 | 1.87 | 1.23 | 1.65 | 1.16 | 1.04 | 1.09 | 1.83 |
| 32 | 1.37 | 1.50 | 1.31 | 1.87 | 1.24 | 1.65 | 1.18 | 1.03 | 1.11 | 1.82 |
| 33 | 1.38 | 1.51 | 1.32 | 1.88 | 1.26 | 1.65 | 1.19 | 1.03 | 1.13 | 1.81 |
| 34 | 1.39 | 1.51 | 1.33 | 1.88 | 1.27 | 1.65 | 1.21 | 1.03 | 1.15 | 1.81 |
| 35 | 1.40 | 1.52 | 1.34 | 1.88 | 1.28 | 1.65 | 1.22 | 1.03 | 1.18 | 1.80 |
| 36 | 1.41 | 1.52 | 1.35 | 1.89 | 1.29 | 1.65 | 1.24 | 1.03 | 1.18 | 1.80 |
| 37 | 1.42 | 1.53 | 1.36 | 1.89 | 1.31 | 1.66 | 1.25 | 1.02 | 1.19 | 1.80 |
| 38 | 1.43 | 1.54 | 1.37 | 1.89 | 1.32 | 1.66 | 1.26 | 1.02 | 1.21 | 1.79 |
| 39 | 1.43 | 1.54 | 1.38 | 1.90 | 1.33 | 1.66 | 1.27 | 1.02 | 1.22 | 1.79 |
| 40 | 1.44 | 1.54 | 1.39 | 1.90 | 1.34 | 1.66 | 1.29 | 1.02 | 1.23 | 1.79 |
| 45 | 1.47 | 1.57 | 1.43 | 1.93 | 1.38 | 1.67 | 1.34 | 1.02 | 1.29 | 1.78 |
| 50 | 1.50 | 1.59 | 1.46 | 1.93 | 1.42 | 1.67 | 1.38 | 1.02 | 1.34 | 1.77 |
| 55 | 1.53 | 1.60 | 1.49 | 1.94 | 1.45 | 1.68 | 1.41 | 1.02 | 1.38 | 1.77 |
| 60 | 1.55 | 1.62 | 1.51 | 1.95 | 1.48 | 1.69 | 1.44 | 1.03 | 1.41 | 1.77 |
| 65 | 1.57 | 1.63 | 1.54 | 1.96 | 1.50 | 1.70 | 1.47 | 1.03 | 1.44 | 1.77 |
| 70 | 1.58 | 1.64 | 1.55 | 1.97 | 1.52 | 1.70 | 1.49 | 1.04 | 1.46 | 1.77 |
| 75 | 1.60 | 1.65 | 1.57 | 1.98 | 1.54 | 1.71 | 1.51 | 1.04 | 1.49 | 1.77 |
| 80 | 1.61 | 1.66 | 1.59 | 1.99 | 1.56 | 1.72 | 1.53 | 1.04 | 1.51 | 1.77 |
| 85 | 1.62 | 1.67 | 1.60 | 1.70 | 1.57 | 1.72 | 1.55 | 1.05 | 1.52 | 1.77 |
| 90 | 1.63 | 1.68 | 1.61 | 1.70 | 1.59 | 1.73 | 1.57 | 1.05 | 1.54 | 1.78 |
| 95 | 1.64 | 1.69 | 1.62 | 1.71 | 1.60 | 1.73 | 1.58 | 1.05 | 1.56 | 1.78 |
| 100 | 1.65 | 1.69 | 1.63 | 1.72 | 1.61 | 1.74 | 1.59 | 1.06 | 1.57 | 1.78 |
| 150 | 1.72 | 1.74 | 1.70 | 1.76 | 1.69 | 1.77 | 1.87 | 1.78 | 1.66 | 1.80 |
| 200 | 1.75 | 1.77 | 1.74 | 1.78 | 1.73 | 1.79 | 1.72 | 1.81 | 1.71 | 1.82 |

Note : k = Number of explanatory variables excluding the constant.